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FOOD AND FEEDING.

FOOD AND FEEDING.

BY

SIR HENRY THOMPSON, F.R.C.S., &c.

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WITH AN APPENDIX.

THIRD EDITION.

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PREFACE

TO THE THIRD EDITION.

A Third Edition of this little work having been called for, the publishers have had it entirely re-composed, and the author has carefully revised it throughout, making emendations, where they have appeared to be necessary, and numerous additions. Among the latter, a new chapter, the fourth, has been devoted to one of the most important articles of food consumed in this country, viz., Cow's Milk, to which no special consideration had been given in any previous issue.

The subject of Fish in relation to diet has also been discussed much more fully than

before, and several fresh suggestions made as to the preparation of it for the table. These appear partly in Chapter VI., and partly in the Appendix.

March, 1884.

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FOOD AND FEEDING.

CHAPTER I.

Importance of the proper selection and preparation of food—Improper feeding common among all classes, and at all periods of life.—Necessary constituents in food for nourishing the human body.—Comparison between animal food and vegetable food—Individual peculiarities.

I THINK I shall not be far wrong if I say that there are few subjects more important to the well-being of man than the selection and preparation of his food. Our forefathers in their wisdom have provided, by ample and generously endowed organisations, for the dissemination of moral precepts in relation to human conduct, and for the constant supply of sustenance to meet the cravings of religious emotions common to all sorts and conditions of men. In these provisions no student of human nature can fail to recognise the spirit of wisdom and a lofty purpose. But it is not a sign of ancestral wisdom that so little thought has been bestowed on the teaching of what we should eat and drink; that the relations, not only between food and a healthy population, but between food and virtue,

between the process of digestion and the state of mind which results from it, have occupied a subordinate place in the practical arrangements of life. No doubt there has long been some practical acknowledgment, on the part of a few educated persons, of the simple fact, that a man's temper, and consequently most of his actions, depend on such an alternative as whether he habitually digests his food well or ill; whether the meals which he eats are properly converted into healthy material, suitable for the ceaseless work of building up both muscle and brain; or whether unhealthy products constantly pollute the course of nutritive supply. But the truth of that fact has never been generally admitted to an extent at all comparable with its exceeding importance. It produces no practical result on the habits of men in the least degree commensurate with the pregnant import contained therein. For it is certain that an adequate practical recognition of the value of proper food to the individual in maintaining a high standard of health, in prolonging healthy life (the prolongation of unhealthy life being small gain either to the individual or to the community), and thus largely promoting cheerful temper, prevalent good nature, and improved moral tone, would achieve almost a revolution in the habits of a large part of the community.

The general outlines of a man's mental character and physical tendencies are doubtless largely determined by the impress of race and family. That is to say, the scheme of the building, its characteristics and

dimensions, are inherited; but to a very large extent the materials and filling in of the framework depend, in regard of their quality, upon his food and training. By the latter term may be understood all that relates to mental and moral and even to physical education, assumed to be fairly provided for, and not to be considered here. No matter, then, how consummate the scheme of the architect, nor how vast the design, more or less of failure to rear the edifice results when the materials are ill chosen or for the most part unworthy to be used. Other sources of failure there may be which it is no part of my business to note; but the influence of food is not only itself cardinal in rank, but, by priority of action, is the source of various forces, injurious or the reverse, as the case may be.

A very slight sketch of the course of development observed in the most ordinary types of human life will suffice to illustrate this truth.

To commence then, I fear it must be admitted that the majority of British infants are reared on imperfect milk by weak or ill-fed mothers. And thus it follows that the signs of feeble vitality, of fretful disposition or of disease, may be observed at a very early age, and are apparent in symptoms of indigestion or in the cravings of want manifested by the "peevish" and sleepless child. In circumstances where there is no want of abundant nutriment, over-feeding or complicated forms of food, suitable only for older persons, produce for another infant troubles which are no less grave than those of the former. In the next stage of

life, among the poor the child takes his place at the parents' table, where lack of means, as well as of knowledge, deprives him of food more suitable than the rough fare of the adult, and moreover obtains for him, perchance, his little share of beer or gin. On the whole, perhaps he is not much worse off than the child of the well-to-do, who becomes a pet, and is already familiarised with complex and too solid forms of food, as well as with stimulating drinks, which custom and self-indulgence have placed on the daily table. And soon afterwards commence in consequence—and entirely in consequence, a fact it is impossible too much to emphasize—the "sick headaches" and "bilious attacks," which pursue their victim through half a lifetime, to be exchanged for gout or worse at or before the grand climacteric. And so common are these evils that they are regarded by people in general as a necessary appanage of "poor humanity." No notion can be more erroneous, since it is absolutely true that the complaints referred to are self-engendered, form no necessary part of our physical nature, and for their existence are dependent almost entirely on our habits in relation to food and drink. I except, of course, those cases in which hereditary tendencies are so strong as to produce these evils, despite of some care on the part of the unfortunate victim of an ancestor's self-indulgence. Equally, however, on the part of that little-to-be-revered progenitor was ill-chosen food, or more probably excess in quantity, the cause of disease, and not the physical nature of man.

The next stage of boyhood transfers the child just spoken of to a public school, where too often insufficient or inappropriate diet, at the most critical period of growth, has to be supplemented from other sources. It is almost unnecessary to say that chief among them are those unsuitable purveyors, the pastrycook and the vendor of portable provisions, for much of which latter that skin-stuffed compound of unknown origin, an uncertified sausage, may be accepted as the type.

After this period arise the temptations to drink, among the youth of all classes, whether at beerhouse, tavern, or club. For it has been taught in the bosom of the family, by the father's example and by the mother's precept, that wine, beer, and spirits are useful, nay, necessary to health, and that they augment the strength. And the lessons thus inculcated and too well learned have proved to be the steps which lead to wider experience in the pursuit of health and strength by larger use of the same means. Under such circumstances it often happens, as the youth grows up, that a flagging appetite or a failing digestion habitually demands a dram before or between meals, and that these latter are regarded rather as occasions to indulge in variety of liquor than as repasts for nourishing the body. It is not surprising, with such training, that the true object of both eating and drinking is entirely lost sight of. The gratification of acquired tastes usurps the function of that zest which healthy appetite produces; and the intention that food should be adapted to the physical needs of the

body and the healthy action of the mind is forgotten altogether. So it often comes to pass that at middle age, when man finds himself in the full current of life's occupations, struggling for pre-eminence with his fellows, indigestion has become persistent in some of its numerous forms, shortens his "staying power," or spoils his judgment or temper. And, besides all this, how apparent it is that few causes are more potent than an incompetent stomach to engender habits of selfishness and egotism. A constant care to provide little personal wants of various kinds, thus rendered necessary, developes the growth of these sentiments, and they influence the man's whole character in consequence. On the other hand, the poor man, advancing in years, shows signs of damage to his constitution from continuous toil with inadequate food, the supply of which is often diminished by his expenditure for beer, which, although not seldom noxious, he regards as the elixir of life, never to be missed when fair occasion for obtaining it is offered. Many of this class are prematurely crippled by articular disease, &c., and become permanent inmates of the parish workhouse or infirmary.

It must be obvious to everybody how much more of detail might be added to fill in the outlines of this little sketch. It is meagre in the extreme: nevertheless it amply suffices for my purpose; other illustrations may occur hereafter.

But it is necessary to say at this point, and I desire to say it emphatically, that the subject of food need

not, even with the views just enunciated, be treated in an ascetic spirit. It is to be considered in relation to a principle, in which we may certainly believe, that aliments most adapted to develop the individual, sound in body and mind, shall not only be most acceptable, but that they may be selected and prepared so as to afford scope for the exercise of a refined taste, and produce a fair degree of an innocent pleasure naturally associated with the function of the palate, and derived from a study of the table. For it is certain that nine-tenths of the gourmandise which is practised, at all events in English society—where for the most part it is the result of faith without knowledge—is no more a source of gratification to the eater's gustatory sense than it is of digestible sustenance to his body.

Our subject now shapes itself. Food must first be regarded in relation to its value as material to be used for building up and sustaining that composite structure, the human body, under the varied conditions in which it may be placed. Secondly, the selection of food, and the best modes of preparing it, resulting in the production of "the dish," a subject of great extent and importance, must be dealt with very briefly. Lastly, the exercise of taste in relation to the serving of food and drink, or the art of combining dishes to form "a meal," must also be considered in relation to various purposes.

I shall not regard this as the place in which to offer any scientific definition of the term food. I

shall include within its range all the solid materials popularly so regarded and therefore eaten. And drink being as necessary as solids for the purpose of digestion, and to supply that large proportion of fluid which the body contains in every mesh and cell thereof, I shall regard as "drink" all the liquids which it is customary to swallow with our meals, although probably very few, if any, of them can be regarded as food in any strict sense of the term.

Food is essential to the body in order to fulfil two distinct purposes, or to supply two distinct wants inseparable from animal life. As certainly as a steam-engine requires fuel, by the combustion or oxidation of which force is called into action for various purposes—as the engine itself requires the mending and replacing of parts wasted in the process of working—so certainly does the animal body require fuel to evoke its force, and material to replace those portions which are necessarily wasted by labour, whether the latter be what is called physical or mental, that is, of limbs or of brain. The material which is competent to supply both requirements is a complete or perfect food. Examples of complete food exist in milk and the egg, sufficing as these do for all the wants of the young animal during the period of early growth. Nevertheless a single animal product like either of the two named, although complex in itself, is not more perfect than an artificial combination of various simpler substances, provided the mixture (dish or meal) contains

all the elements required in due proportion for the purposes of the body.

It would be out of place to occupy much space with those elementary details of the chemical constitution of the body which may be found in any small manual of human physiology;* but for the right understanding of our subject, a brief sketch must be presented. Let it suffice to say that carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen, the three all-pervading elements of the vegetable world, enter largely into the composition of the animal body; and that the two former combined especially constitute a fuel, the oxidation of which produces animal heat, and developes the force in its varied forms, physical and mental, which the body is capable of exerting. Besides these, nitrogen, obtainable from certain vegetable products, not from all, but forming definite combinations with the three elements just named, is essential to the repair and reproduction of the body itself, being one of its most important constituents. Lastly must be named several other elements which, in small proportions, are also essential constituents of the body; such as sulphur, phosphorus, salts of lime, magnesia, potash, &c., with traces of iron and other metals. All these must be present in the food supplied, otherwise animal existence cannot be supported; and all are found in the

* Such as *Physiology*, Science Primer, by M. Foster, M.A., M.D., (Macmillan); *Lessons in Elementary Physiology*, by Professor Huxley (Macmillan). For a full consideration of the subject Dr. Pavey's very complete *Treatise on Food and Dietetics* (Churchill, London, 1875).

vegetable kingdom, and may be obtained directly therefrom by man in feeding on vegetables alone.* But the process of obtaining and combining these simple elements into the more complex forms which constitute the bases of animal tissues—definite compounds of nitrogen with carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen —is also accomplished by the lower animals, which are exclusively vegetable feeders. These animals we can consume as food, and thus procure, if we please, ready prepared for our purpose, the materials of flesh, sinew, and bone, for immediate use. We obtain also from the animal milk and the egg, already said to be "perfect" foods; and they are so because they contain the nitrogenous compounds referred to, fatty matter abundantly, and the various saline or mineral matters requisite. But compounds simpler in form than the preceding, of a non-nitrogenous kind, that is, of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen only, are necessary as food for the production of animal heat and force. These consist, first, of the fat of animals of various kinds, and of butter; and from the vegetable kingdom, of the fatty matter which exists in grain and legumes, and largely in the olive and in many seeds: secondly, of the starchy matters, all derived from vegetables, such as a large part of wheaten and

* The vegetable kingdom comprehends the cereals, legumes, roots, starches, sugar, herbs, and fruits. Persons who style themselves vegetarians, often consume milk, eggs, butter, and lard, which are choice foods from the animal kingdom. There are other persons, of course, who are strictly vegetable eaters, and such alone have any right to the title of vegetarians.

other flour, rice, arrowroot, and potatoes; together with sugar, gum, and other minor vegetable products of a similar kind. The fats form the more important group of the two, both in relation to the production of heat and force; and without a constant supply of fat as food the body would cease to exist. The vegetable eater, pure and simple, can therefore extract from his food all the principles necessary for the growth and support of the body as well as for the production of heat and force, provided that he selects vegetables which contain all the essential elements named. But he must for this purpose consume the best cereals, wheat or oats; or the legumes, beans, peas, or lentils; or he must swallow and digest a large weight of vegetable matter of less nutritive value, and therefore containing at least one element in large excess, in order to obtain all the elements he needs. Thus the Irishman requires for his support ten to eleven pounds of potatoes daily, which contain chiefly starch—of which therefore he consumes a superfluous quantity—very little nitrogen, and scarcely any fat; hence he obtains, when he can, milk, lard, or bacon, or a herring to supply the deficiency. The Highlander, living mainly on oatmeal, requires a much smaller weight, since this grain contains not only starch, but much nitrogen and a fair amount of fat, although not quite sufficient for his purpose, which is usually supplied by adding milk or a little bacon to his diet. On the other hand, the man who lives chiefly or largely on flesh and eggs as well as bread, obtains pre-

cisely the same principles, but served in a concentrated form, and a weight of about two or three pounds of such food is a full equivalent to the Irishman's ten or eleven pounds of potatoes and extras. The meat-eater's digestion is taxed with a far less quantity of solid, but that very concentration in regard of quality entails on some stomachs an expenditure of force in digestion equal to that required by the vegetable eater to assimilate his much larger portions. And it must be admitted, as a fact beyond question, that some persons are stronger and more healthy who live chiefly or altogether on vegetables, while there are many others for whom a proportion of animal food appears to be desirable, if not necessary. In studying this matter, individual habit must be taken into account. An animal feeder may by slow degrees become a vegetarian, without loss of weight or strength, not without feeling some inconvenience in the process; but a sudden change in diet in this direction is for a time almost equivalent to starvation. The digestive organs require a considerable period to accommodate themselves to the performance of work different from that to which they have been long accustomed, and in some constitutions might fail altogether in the attempt. Besides, in matters of diet essentially, many persons have individual peculiarities; and while certain fixed principles exist, such as those already laid down as absolutely cardinal, in the detail of their application to each man's wants, an infinity of stomach-eccentricities is to be reckoned on. The old

proverb expresses the fact strongly but truly: "What is one man's meat is another man's poison." Yet nothing is more common—and one rarely leaves a social dinner table without observing it—than to hear some good-natured person recommending to his neighbour, with a confidence rarely found except in alliance with profound ignorance of the matter in hand, some special form of food, or drink, or system of diet, solely because the adviser happens to have found it useful to himself!

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CHAPTER II.

Materials at man's command for food—Grain—Legumes—Tubers—Green vegetables—Fruits—Salt—Animal food—Flesh—Milk—Eggs—Fish—Reptiles—Man omnivorous: his food largely determined by circumstances—Food of the tropics—North Africa—Arabia—Italy—Spain—France—German Empire and Russia—The Arctic zone.

It will be interesting now to take a general but brief survey of the vast range of materials which civilised man has at his command for the purpose of food: these few preliminary remarks on the chemical constituents of food having been intended to aid in appreciating the value of different kinds.

Commencing with the vegetable kingdom, from which our early progenitors, probably during long ages, drew all their sustenance, the cereals, or cultivated grasses, come first, as containing all the elements necessary to life, and being therefore the most largely consumed. Wheat and its congeners, which rank highest in quality, had been distinguished, in the form of bread, as "the staff of life," long before the physiological demonstration of the fact had been attained. Wheat, oats, rye and barley, maize and rice, are the chief members of this group; wheat containing most of the nitrogenous or flesh-forming material,

besides abundance of starch, a moderate amount of fat, together with sufficient saline and mineral elements. Rice, on the other hand, contains very little nitrogen, fat, and mineral constituents, but starch in great abundance; while maize, with a fair supply of nitrogenous and starchy matter, contains the most fatty material of the whole group. As derived from wheat must be named those valuable aliments, macaroni, vermicelli, and all the Italian pastes. Derived from barley is malt-saccharine, parent of the large family of fermented liquors known as beer. And from various other grains are obtained by fermentation and distillation, several forms of ardent spirit. Vinegar, best when produced from the grape, is also largely made from grain.

The legumes, such as beans, lentils, and peas, form an aliment of great value, containing more nitrogen even than the cereals, but with fat in very small proportion, while starchy matter and the mineral elements abound in both groups.

The tuber finds its type in the potato which, like rice, contains much starch, little nitrogen, and almost no fat; the same may be said of the yam also. The roots may be illustrated by the beet, carrot, parsnip, and turnip, all containing little nitrogen, but much sugar, and water in large proportion. Derived from roots and stems of foreign growth, we have arrowroot, tapioca, and sago, all starches and destitute of nitrogen. Fatty matter is abundantly found in the olive, which supplies a large part of the world with an im-

portant article of food. The almond and other seeds, as rape, cotton, mustard are also fruitful sources of oil.

Under the term "green vegetables," a few leading plants may be enumerated as types of the vast natural supplies which everywhere exist:—The entire cabbage tribe in great variety; lettuces, endive, and cresses; spinach, seakale, asparagus, celery, onions, artichokes, and tomato, all valuable not so much for nutritive property, which is not considerable, as for admixture with other food chiefly on account of salts which they contain, and for their appetising aroma and varied flavours. Thus condiments are useful, as the sweet and aromatic spices, the peppers, mustard, and the various potherbs, so essential to an agreeable cuisine. Seaweeds, under the name of laver, and the whole tribe of mushrooms, should be named, as ranking much higher in nutritive value than green vegetables. Pumpkins, gourds or marrows, and cucumbers, chestnuts, and other nuts largely support life in some countries. The bread fruit is of high value; so also are the cocoanut and the banana in tropical climates.

Lastly must be named all those delicious but not very nutritive products of most varied kind and source, grouped under the name of fruits. These are characterised chiefly by the presence of sugar, acid, vegetable jelly, and some saline matter, often combined with scent and flavour of exquisite quality. Derived from grapes as its chief source, stands wine in its innumerable varieties, so closely associated by

all civilised nations with the use of aliments, although not universally admitted to rank in technical language as a food. Next may be named sugar in its various forms, a non-nitrogenous product of great value, and, in a less degree, honey. No less important are the tea plant, the coffee berry, and the seeds of the cacao tree.

There is a single element belonging to the mineral kingdom which is taken in its natural state as an addition to food, namely, common salt; and it is so universally recognised as necessary, that it cannot be omitted here. The foregoing list possesses no claim to be exhaustive, only to be fairly typical and suggestive; a few omissions, which some may think important, doubtless exist. In like manner, a rapid survey may be taken of the animal kingdom.

First, the flesh of domestic quadrupeds: the ox and sheep, both adult and young; the pig; the goat; the horse and ass, chiefly in France. Milk, butter, and cheese in endless variety are derived chiefly from this group. More or less wild are the red deer, the fallow deer, and the roe-deer. As game, the hare and rabbit; abroad, the bison, wild boar, bear, chamois, and kangaroo, are esteemed for food among civilised nations; but many other animals are eaten by half-civilised and savage peoples. All these are rich in nitrogen, fatty matters, and saline materials.

Among birds, we have domestic poultry in great variety of size and quality, with eggs in great abundance furnished chiefly by this class. All the wild

fowl and aquatic birds; the pigeon tribe and the small birds. Winged game in all its well-known variety.

Of fish it is unnecessary to enumerate the enormous supply and the various species which exist everywhere, and especially on our own shores, from the sturgeon to whitebait, besides those in fresh-water rivers and lakes. All of them furnish nitrogenous matter largely, but, and particularly the white fish, possess fat in very small quantity, with a fair proportion of saline materials. The salmon, mackerel, eels, and herring tribes have more fat, the last named in considerable quantity, forming a useful food well calculated to supplement cereal aliments, and largely adopted for the purpose both in the south and north of Europe.

The so-called reptiles furnish turtle, tortoise, and edible frog. Among articulated animals are the lobsters, crabs, and shrimps. Among molluscs, the oyster and all the shellfish, which, as well as the preceding animals, in chemical composition closely resemble that of fish properly so called.

I shall not enter on a discussion of the question: Is man designed to be a vegetable feeder, or a flesh-eating or an omnivorous animal? Nor shall his teeth or other organs be examined in reference thereto. Any evidence to be found by anatomical investigation can only be safely regarded as showing what man is and has been. That he has been and is omnivorous to the extent of his means, there can exist no doubt. Whether he has been generally prudent or happy in

his choice of food and drink is highly improbable, seeing that until very recently he has possessed no certain knowledge touching the relations which matters used as food hold with respect to the structure and wants of his body, and that such recent knowledge has been confined to a very few individuals. Whatever sound practice he may have attained, and it is not inconsiderable, in his choice and treatment of food, is the result of many centuries of empirical observation, the process of which has been attended with much disastrous failure and some damage to the experimenters. No doubt much unsound constitution and proclivity to certain diseases result from the persistent use through many generations of improper food and drink.

Speaking in general terms, man seems, at the present time, prone to choose foods which are unnecessarily concentrated and too rich in nitrogenous or flesh-forming material, and to consume more in quantity than is necessary for the healthy performance of the animal functions. He is apt to leave out of sight the great difference, in relation to both quantity and quality of food, which different habits of life demand, *e.g.*, between the habits of those who are chiefly sedentary and brain-workers, and of those who are active and exercise muscle more than brain. He makes very small account of the different requirements by the child, the mature adult, and the declining or aged person. And he seems to be still less aware of the frequent existence of notable individual peculiarities

in relation to the tolerance of certain aliments and drinks. As a rule, man has little knowledge of, or interest in, the processes by which food is prepared for the table, or the conditions necessary to the healthy digestion of it by himself. Until a tolerably high standard of civilisation is reached, he cares more for quantity than quality, desires little variety, and regards as impertinent an innovation in the shape of a new aliment, expecting the same food at the same hour daily, his enjoyment of which apparently greatly depends on his ability to swallow the portion with extreme rapidity, that he may apply himself to some other and more important occupation without delay. Eating is treated in fact by multitudes much as they are disposed to treat religious duty—which eating assuredly is, if my opening remarks are true—that is, as a duty which is generally irksome, but unfortunately necessary to be performed. As to any exercise of taste in the serving or in the combining of different foods at a meal, the subject is completely out of reach of the great majority of people, and is as little comprehended by them as the structure and harmonies of a symphony are by the first whistling boy one chances to meet in the street. The intelligent reader who has sufficient interest in this subject to have followed me thus far may fancy this a sketch from savage life. On the contrary, I can assure him that ignorance and indifference to the nature and object of food mark the condition of a large majority of the so-called educated people of this country. Men even boast of their ignor

ance of so trivial a subject, regard it as unworthy the exercise of their powers, and—small compliment to their wives and sisters—fit only for the occupation of women.

Admitting man, then, to be physically so constituted as to be able to derive all that is necessary to the healthy performance of all his functions from the animal or from the vegetable kingdom, either singly or combined, he can scarcely be regarded otherwise than as qualified to be an omnivorous animal. Add to this fact his possession of an intelligence which enables him to obtain food of all kinds and climes, to investigate its qualities, and to render it more fit for digestion by heat—powers which no other animal possesses—and there appears no *à priori* reason for limiting his diet to products of either kingdom exclusively.

It becomes then a matter of no little interest to ascertain what materials, under the empirical conditions named, have furnished the staple food of the common people of various climates and races—what, in short, supports the life and labour of the chief part of the world's population.

In the tropics and adjacent portions of the temperate zones, high temperature being incompatible with the physical activity familiar to northern races, a very little nitrogenous material suffices, since the expenditure is small. Only a moderate quantity of fat is taken, the demand for heat and for force being inconsiderable. The chiefly starchy products supply nearly

all the nutriment required, and such are found in rice, millet, &c. Rice by itself is the principal food of the wide zone thus indicated, including a large part of China, the East Indies, part of Africa and America, and also the West Indies. Small additions, where obtainable, are made of other seeds, of oil, butter, &c.; and as temperature decreases by distance from the equator, some fish, fowl, or other light form of animal food, are added.

In the north of Africa, Arabia, and some neighbouring parts, the date, which contains sugar in abundance, is largely eaten, as well as maize and other cereals.

Crossing to Europe, the southern Italian is found subsisting on macaroni, legumes, rice, fruits, and salads, with oil, cheese, fish, and small birds, but very little meat. More northward, besides fish and a little meat, maize is the chief aliment, rye and other cereals taking a second place. The chestnut also is largely eaten by the poorer population, both it and maize containing more fatty matter than wheat, oats, and legumes.

In Spain, the inhabitants subsist chiefly on maize and rice, with some wheat and legumes, among them the garbanzo or "chick pea," and one of the principal vegetable components of the national *olla*, which contains also a considerable proportion of animal food in variety, as bacon, sausage, fowl, &c. Fruit is fine and abundant; especially so are grapes, figs, and melons. There is little or no butter, the universal

substitute for which is olive oil, produced in great quantity. Fowls and the pig furnish the chief animal food, and garlic is the favourite condiment.

Going northward, flesh of all kinds occupies a more considerable place in the dietary. In France the garden vegetables and legumes form an important staple of diet for all classes; but the very numerous small land proprietors subsist largely on the direct products of the soil, adding little more than milk, poultry, and eggs, the produce of their small farms. The national *pot-au-feu* is an admirable mixed dish, in which a small portion of meat is made to yield all its nutritive qualities, and to go far in mingling its odour and savour with those of the fragrant vegetables which are so largely added to the stock. The beef, which is an essential portion of the dish, is often eaten hot after the soup, but sometimes cold, with plenty of green salad and oil, doubtless the most palatable mode of serving, while it furnishes a source of fat, if not otherwise provided for by butter, cheese, &c.*

Throughout the German Empire, the cereals, legumes, greens, roots, and fruits supply an important proportion of the food consumed by the common population. Wheaten bread chiefly, and some made from rye, also beans and peas, are used abundantly. Potatoes and green vegetables of all kinds are served in numerous ways, but largely in soup, a favourite dish. Meats, chiefly pork, are greatly

* For full details as to the nature and preparation of the *pot-au-feu*, see page 72, and the Appendix.

esteemed in the form of sausage, and appear also in small portions or joints, but freely garnished with vegetables, on the tables of those who can afford animal diet. Going northward, where the climate is no longer adapted for the production of wheat, as in parts of Russia, rye and oats form the staple food from the vegetable kingdom, associated with an increased quantity of meat and fatty materials.

Lastly, it is well known that the inhabitants of the Arctic zone are compelled to consume large quantities of oily matter, in order to generate heat abundantly; and also that animal food is necessarily the staple of their dietary. Vegetables, which moreover are not producible in so severe a climate, would there be wholly inadequate to support life.

CHAPTER III.

Food of the English peasant—Food of Englishmen generally too solid or stimulating—Value of fish as an article of diet—Food for the sedentary—Of the leguminous plants, haricots and lentils—Whole meal of wheat: its employment for bread—Rice, maize, macaroni, and potato.

We will now consider the food which the English peasant and artisan provide. The former lives, for the most part, on wheaten bread and cheese, with occasionally a little bacon, some potatoes, and perhaps garden greens; it is only occasionally indeed that he can obtain fresh meat. To this dietary the artisan adds meat as a rule, mostly beef or mutton, and some butter. A piece of fresh, and therefore not tender beef, is baked, or cooked in a frying-pan, in the latter case becoming a hard, and not very digestible morsel; by the former process a somewhat better dish is produced, the meat being usually surrounded by potatoes or by a layer of batter, since both contain starchy products, and absorb the fat which leaves the meat. The food of the peasant might, however, be cheaper and better; while the provision of the artisan is extravagant and bad. At this period of our national history, when food is scarce, and the supply of meat insufficient to meet the demand which our national habits of feeding perpetuate, it

is an object of the first importance to consider whether other aliments can be obtained at a cheaper rate, and at the same time equal in quality to those of the existing dietary. Many believe that this object may be accomplished without difficulty, and that the chief obstacle to improvement in the food-supply, not only of the classes referred to, but in that of the English table generally, is the common prejudice which exists against any aliment not yet widely known or tried. The one idea which the working classes possess in relation to improvement in diet, and which they invariably realise when wages are high, is an abundant supply of butcher's meat. To make this the chief element of at least three meals daily, and to despise bread and vegetables, is for them no less a sign of taste, than a declaration of belief in the perfection of such food for the purposes of nutrition.

We have already seen that not only can all that is necessary to the human body be supplied by the vegetable kingdom solely, but that, as a matter of fact, the world's population is to a large extent supported by vegetable products. Such form, at all events, the most wholesome and agreeable diet for the inhabitants of the tropics. Between about forty and nearly sixty degrees of latitude we find large populations of fine races trained to be the best labourers in the world on little more than cereals and legumes, with milk (cheese and butter), as food; that little consisting of irregular and scanty supplies of fish, flesh, and fatty matter. In colder regions

vegetable products are hardly to be obtained, and flesh and fat are indispensable. Thus man is clearly omnivorous; while *men* may be advantageously vegetarian in one climate, mixed eaters in another, and exclusively flesh-eaters in a third.

I have not hesitated to say that Englishmen generally have adopted a diet adapted for a somewhat more northerly latitude than that which they occupy; that the cost of their food is therefore greater than it need be, and that their numerous forms of indigestion and much resulting chronic disease are further necessary consequences of the same error. They consume too much animal food, particularly the flesh of cattle. For all who are occupied with severe and continuous mechanical labour, a mixed diet, of which cereals and legumes form a large portion, and fish, a little fat meat, bacon, or lard, eggs, and milk form a moderate, but constant proportion, is more nutritious and wholesome than almost entirely animal food. For those whose labour is chiefly mental, and whose muscular exercise is inconsiderable, still less of concentrated nitrogenous food is desirable. Then there is a large class of persons who indulge, not necessarily in quantity, but in a kind of food generally reputed "simple and wholesome," which nevertheless for them creates a condition of corpulence, not merely inconvenient, but prejudicial to health, and to their prospects of longevity. Such tendencies existing, and especially if the individual does not, or cannot take much exercise, the choice of food, free from fatty constituent,

or from fat-producing elements, is a matter of no small importance. Then, again, it is absolutely certain, contrary to the popular belief as this is, that while a good supply of food is essential during the period of growth and active middle life, a diminished supply is desirable in relation to health and prolongation of life during declining years, when physical exertion is small, and the digestive faculty sometimes becomes less powerful also. I shall not regard it as within my province here to dilate largely on this topic, but I desire to point out that the system of "supporting" aged persons, as it is termed, with increased quantities of food and stimulant, is an error of cardinal importance, and, without doubt, tends to shorten, or to embitter life. This erroneous practice ignores the important fact that as age increases, the ability to eliminate food unnecessarily consumed notably diminishes. The functions by which surplus and effete matters are thrown off from the system are less active than in youth and middle age; and the results of over-feeding, which a robust constitution can get rid of without obvious evil, become a source of dangerous embarrassment to the feebler organization of one advanced in years. Hence the appearance of a crowd of chronic troubles peculiar to the latter third of life, are to a great extent avoidable. So far from continuing to select the strong nourishment which may have been necessary during the toil and anxieties of thirty years or more of adult energy and activity throughout the prime of life, the elderly man who desires to preserve fair health, and

to attain to longevity, should gradually diminish his use of strong nitrogenous and much fatty food. He should substitute a lighter dietary, as he subsides naturally, and more or less gradually, into the class of the sedentary, and adopts the regimen best adapted thereto, hereafter to be considered.

These things being so, a consideration of no small concern arises in relation to the economical management of the national resources. For it is a fair computation that every acre of land devoted to the production of meat is capable of becoming the source of three or four times the amount of produce of equivalent value as food, if devoted to the production of grain. In other words, a given area of land cropped with cereals and legumes, will support a population more than three times as numerous as that which can be sustained on the same land devoted to the growth of cattle. Moreover, the corn-land will produce, almost without extra cost, a considerable quantity of animal food, in the form of pigs and poultry, from the offal or coarser parts of vegetable produce which is unsuitable for human consumption.

Thus this country purchases every year a large and increasing quantity of corn and flour from foreign countries, while more of our own land is yearly devoted to grazing purposes. The value of corn and flour imported by Great Britain in 1877 was no less than 63,536,322*l.*, while in 1875 it was only just over 53,000,000*l.* The increased import during the last thirty-two years is well exhibited in the following

extract:—"In 1846 the imports of corn and flour amounted to seventeen pounds weight per head of population; in 1855 they had risen to seventy pounds per head; and in 1865 to ninety-three pounds weight per head of population. Finally, in 1877 the imports of corn and flour amounted to 170 pounds weight per head of population of the United Kingdom." *

Lastly, those who are interested in the national supply of food must lament that, while Great Britain possesses perhaps the best opportunities in the world for securing a large and cheap supply of fish, she fails to attain it, and procures so little only, that it is to the great majority of the inhabitants an expensive luxury. Fish is a food of great value; nevertheless it ought in this country to be one of the cheapest aliments, since production and growth cost absolutely nothing, only the expenses of catching, and of a short transport being incurred. This is a question which must sooner or later be solved by the public themselves, unless some persons in the trade, more enterprising than those who now pursue it, will abandon existing conventional rules and habits, and venture on the assuredly safe and profitable enterprise of supplying fish good and fresh, at prices far lower than those which it is agreed shall rule at present.

* *Statesman's Year Book*, 1879, p. 258. And what might be the extra cost of obtaining this supply in time of war?—a contingency we ought seriously to reckon on. We should then, perhaps, draw much more largely than we do at present on the enormous resources which exist on all our shores, referred to in the succeeding paragraph.

very large proportion of our town population
d profit by exchanging some of their meat, as an
e of daily diet, for fish. Where occupation is
y of an intellectual kind, and demands little
cal exertion, fish is often much more suitable
butcher's meat. Without active exercise in the
air, the digestive system is apt to become over-
l and oppressed by meals consisting chiefly of
and even if the primary digestion of it is,
ese circumstances, fairly accomplished, many a
itution suffers from an over-supply of nutritive
ers, which cannot be disposed of easily without
iderable habitual muscular activity.

here is no doubt that the obvious and admitted
e of a highly nitrogenous food, of which meat is a
entrated form, to the labouring man, has occasioned
almost universal belief that such meat, of which
beef and mutton be the type, is the most desirable
l staple for all. "If you wish to be strong, eat
nty of meat;" "If you are feeling weak, eat more
at, and at every meal;" such are the well-known
cles of a creed which is deeply graven in the
ular mind. Nevertheless few statements relating
liet can be more misleading, and this is, as already
mated, one which gives rise to much serious ill
lth.

t is this habit of adopting meat as the chief element
his dietary, which the sedentary man, with little
ortunity for bodily exercise, the man who uses his
in more than his muscles, should especially avoid.

Equally also should he abstain from fatty matte
large quantity, taking only a moderate propor
which is not only permissible, but to that e
necessary. For if he habitually consumes thes
classes of food freely, materials are introduced
the system which it cannot eliminate, and which
ultimately obstruct the function of some internal
Thus the periodical bilious attack, or the recurr
of gout, or some other relentless tormentor, clea
system for a time of the offending matter whic
daily error in diet is perpetually reproducing
accumulating. Those who are thus affected o
endeavour to ward off their troubles by systen
muscular exercises, fencing, rowing, and the like,
they do so with a certain amount of success. It is
the purpose of getting rid of superfluous nutri
materials that others (who may be wholly unconsc
of the need which impels them) secure their yea
shootings, make Alpine excursions, or seek
mineral springs of a foreign spa, contrivances, all
them, for effecting the required elimination once
twice a year by a method more or less agreeable,
which would not be necessary had food suitable t
sedentary life only been taken. Many a man mi
indeed safely pursue a sedentary career, taking o
a small amount of exercise, and yet maintain
excellent standard of health, if only he were care
that the "intake" in the form of diet correspon
with the expenditure which his occupations, men
and physical, demand. Let him by all means en

his annual pastime, and profit by it, to rest his mind and augment his natural forces, but not for the mere purpose of neutralising the evil effects of habitual dietetic wrong-doing.

It is for this large and increasing class of the community, who are emphatically brain-workers, that fish furnishes an appropriate food; and as the tendency of civilisation is slowly but surely to develop mental activity, and to dispense with laborious handicraft, a good supply of cheap fish becomes every day more important to the community.

For the sedentary man, whatever his calling in life, whose engagements permit him only to take just that moderate amount of muscular exercise which is in all circumstances essential to health; for a great proportion of women, whose habits mostly are not, and often cannot be active, the nutritive elements afforded by fish admirably supply an important part of the wants of the body. The moderate amount of flesh-forming material present in fish, and in a form which entails little labour on the digestive organs—for most persons certainly less than meat—and the facility with which fish may be associated with other elements—some fatty matters, with cereals and vegetables, as well as fruits—place it in the first rank of foods in that mixed dietary which is suitable to those who lead more or less the kind of life referred to. I by no means say that it should supersede the use of meat altogether, although it may do so sometimes with advantage; a point only to be determined in each

individual instance after some observation and experiment. For in all cases, it is to be remembered that no man who has habitually eaten meat two or three times daily can at once exchange it for fish and cereals or vegetables, without some discomfort, to say the least. All radical changes in diet, even in the right direction, require to be gradually made; the stomach conforms slowly, when long accustomed to deal with highly nitrogenised animal food, to the task of deriving from unaccustomed materials the support necessary to the body. Given time for such modification function, and it is remarkable—at least it appears s to those who have not practically studied the subject —that a diet which, if adopted suddenly might be equivalent to semi-starvation, may by degrees become the most healthful and nutritious which the individual can adopt.

I may here advert to a belief which appears to be widely entertained, viz., that fish contains certain elements which adapt it in an especial manner to renovate the brain, and so to support mental labour. There is no foundation whatever for this view: the value of fish to the brain-worker is due simply to the facts already referred to, viz., that it contains, in smaller proportion than meat, those materials which taken abundantly demand much physical labour for their complete consumption, and which without this produce an unhealthy condition of body, more or less incompatible with the easy and active exercise of the functions of the brain.

Having enunciated some general principles, which it is important should first be established, I shall offer briefly an illustration or two of the manner in which they may be applied. This brings us to the second division of the subject, viz., the practical treatment of certain aliments, in order to render them suitable for food. Dealing first with that of the agricultural labourer, our object is to economise his small pittance; to give him, if possible, a rather more nutritive, wholesome, and agreeable dish—he can have but one —than his means have hitherto furnished. But here there is little scope for change; already said to live chiefly on bread and cheese, with occasionally bacon, two indications only for improvement can be followed, viz., augmentation of nitrogenous matter and of fatty matter, to support the body and to furnish heat and force. A fair proportion of meat, one of the best means of fulfilling them, is not within his reach. First, his daily bread ought to contain all the constituents of the wheat, instead of being made of flour from which most of the mineral elements have been removed. But beans and peas are richer in nitrogen than wheat, and equal it in starch, mineral matters, and fat, the last being in very small quantity, while maize has three times their proportion of fat. Hence all of these would be useful additions to his dietary, being cheaper than wheat in the market, although, the retail demand being at present small, they may not be so in the small shops. As an illustration of the value of legumes combined with fat, it may be remem-

bered how well the Erbswurst supported the work of the German armies during the winter of 1870-71, an instructive lesson for us in England at the present moment. It consists of a simple pea-soup mixed with a certain proportion of bacon or lard, and dried so as to be portable, constituting in very small compass a perfect food, especially suitable for supporting muscular activity and exposure to cold. Better than any flesh, certainly any which could be transported with ease, the cost was not more than half that of ordinary meat. It was better also, because the form of the food is one in which the nutriment is readily accessible and easily digested; it was relished cold, or could be converted in a few minutes into good soup with boiling water. But for our labourer probably the best of the legumes is the haricot bean, red or white, the dried mature bean of the plant whose pods we eat in the early green state as "French beans."* For this purpose they may be treated thus: Soak, say, a quart of the dried haricots in cold water for about twelve hours, after which place them in a saucepan, with two quarts of cold water and a little salt, on the fire; when boiling remove to the corner and simmer slowly until the beans are tender; the time required being

* What we call "French beans" may be the product of several kindred varieties of the kidney bean, dwarf or climbing, varying according to locality and soil, and distributed over a very large part of Europe. When gathered early, before it is fully grown, the bean is green, like a green pea, and forms an admirable dish, known in France as *flageolets*. When the ordinary French beans (immature green pods) are mixed in about equal proportions with the *flageolets*, the dish,

about two to three hours.* This quantity will fill a large dish, and may be eaten with salt and pepper. It will be greatly improved at small cost by the addition of a bit of butter, or of melted butter with parsley, or if an onion or two have been sliced and stewed with the haricots. A better dish still may be made by putting all or part, after boiling, into a shallow frying pan, and lightly frying for a few minutes with a little lard and some sliced onions. With a few slices of bacon added, a comparatively luxurious and highly nutritive meal may be made. But there is still in the saucepan, after boiling the haricots, a residue of value, which the French peasant's wife, who turns everything to account, utilises in a manner quite incomprehensible to the Englishwoman. The water in which dried haricots have stewed, and also that in which green French beans have been boiled, contains a proportion of nutritive matter. The Frenchwoman preserves this liquor carefully, cuts and fries some onions, adds to it these and some thick slices of bread, a little salt and pepper with a potherb or two from the corner of the garden, and thus serves hot an agreeable and useful *croûte au pot*. It ought to be added that the haricots so largely used by the working classes throughout Europe are not precisely either "red" or "white," but some cheaper local varieties, known

which is a very palatable one, is well known in France as *haricots verts panachés* (variegated), and might be served at our tables with advantage.

* If the water is hard, a little soda should be added to soften it.

as *haricots du pays.* These are now supplied here at about twopence a pound, and in large quantity might be obtained at a somewhat cheaper rate, their quality as food being not inferior to other kinds.

But haricots—let them be the fine white Soissons—are good enough to be welcome at any table. A roast leg or shoulder of mutton should be garnished by a pint boiled as just directed, lying in the gravy of the dish; and some persons think that, with a good supply of the meat gravy, and a little salt and pepper, "the haricots are by no means the worst part of the mutton." Then with a smooth *purée* of mild onions, which have been previously sliced, fried brown, and stewed, served freely as sauce, our leg of mutton and haricots become the *gigot à la bretonne* well known to all lovers of wholesome and savoury cookery. Next, white haricots stewed until soft, made into a rather thick *purée*, delicately flavoured by adding a small portion of white *purée* of onions (not browned by frying as in the preceding sauce), produce an agreeable garnish for the centre of a dish of small cutlets, or an *entrée* of fowl &c. Again, the same haricot *purée* blended with veal stock, well flavoured with fresh vegetables, furnishes an admirable and nutritious white soup. The red haricots, in like manner, with a beef stock make a superlative brown soup, which, with the addition of portions of game, especially of hare, forms, for those who do not despise economy in cuisine where the result attained is so excellent, a soup which in texture and in flavour would by many persons not be distinguishable

from a common *purée* of game itself. Stewed haricots also furnish, when cold, an admirable salad, improved by adding slices of tomato, &c., the oil supplying the one element in which the bean is deficient; and a perfectly nutritious food is produced for those who can digest it—and they are numerous—in this form. The same dietetic principle, it may be observed, has, although empirically, produced the well-known dishes of beans and bacon, ham and green peas, boiled pork and pease-pudding, all of them old and popular but scientific combinations. Thus also the French, serving *petits pois* as a separate dish, add butter freely and a dash of sugar, the former making the compound physiologically complete, the latter agreeably heightening the natural sweetness of the vegetable, especially when the peas are a little old, insipid, or have lost their accustomed flavour.

Let me recall, at the close of these few hints about the haricot, the fact, that there is no product of the vegetable kingdom so nutritious; holding its own in this respect, as it well can, even against the beef and mutton of the animal kingdom. The haricot ranks [redacted] above lentils, which have been so much praised of [redacted] and rightly, the haricot being also to most palates [redacted]re agreeable. By most stomachs, too, haricots are [redacted]ore easily digested than meat is; and, consuming weight for weight, the eater feels lighter and less oppressed, as a rule, after the leguminous dish; while the comparative cost is very greatly in favour of the latter. I do not of course overlook in the dish of

simple haricots the absence of savoury odours proper to well-cooked meat: but nothing is easier than to combine one part of meat with two parts of haricots, adding vegetables and garden herbs, so as to produce a stew which shall be more nutritious, wholesome, and palatable than a stew of all meat with vegetables and no haricots. Moreover, the cost of the latter will be more than double that of the former.

I have just adverted to the bread of the labourer, and recommended that it should be made from entire wheat meal; but it should not be so coarsely ground as that commonly sold in London as "whole meal." The coarseness of "whole meal" is a condition designed to exert a specific effect on the digestion for those who need it, and, useful as it is in its place, is not desirable for the average population referred to. It is worth observing, in relation to this coarse meal, that it does not readily produce light agreeable bread when made in the form of ordinary loaves: a solid mass of this meal being a bad conductor of heat, will have a hard flinty crust if baked sufficiently to cook the interior; or it will have a soft dough-like interior, if the baking is checked when the crust is pro[illegible] done. Consequently the form of a flat cake, resem[illegible] that of the ordinary tea-cake, is preferable, sinc[illegible] admits of the right amount of heat operating equa[illegible] throughout the mass.

The following receipt will be found successful, probably after a trial or two, in producing excellent, light, friable, and most palatable bread:—

To two pounds of coarsely ground or crushed whole wheat-meal, add half a pound of fine flour and a sufficient quantity of baking powder and salt; when these are well mixed, rub in about two ounces of butter, and make into dough with half milk and water, with skimmed milk, warm, or with all milk if preferred. Make into flat cakes like "tea-cakes," and bake without delay in a quick oven, leaving them afterwards to finish thoroughly at a lower temperature.* The butter and milk supply fatty matter in which the wheat is somewhat deficient; all the saline and mineral matters of the husk are retained; and thus a more nutritive form of bread cannot be made. Moreover, it retains the natural flavour of the wheat, in place of the insipidity which is characteristic of fine flour, although it is indisputable that bread produced from the latter, especially at Paris and Vienna, is unrivalled for delicacy, texture, and colour. A palatable addition is made, in my opinion, by exchanging the half pound of flour ordered in the foregoing receipt for the same quantity of medium fine Scotch oatmeal. The change adds to the brittleness and lightness of the

* The following is a simple and excellent formula for "baking powder;" one which has been long used for this and other purposes. It may be obtained at any chemist's and in any quantity, based on the following proportions:

Tartaric acid, 2 ozs.
Bicarbonate of soda, 3 ozs.
Common arrowroot, 3 ozs.

Mix well; place in a wide-mouthed corked bottle, and keep perfectly dry.

product. Whole meal may be bought; but mills are now cheaply made for home use, and wheat may be ground to any degree of coarseness desired.*

Further examples are unnecessary here, although it would be an easy task to fill a volume with matter of this kind, illustrating the ample means which exist for diminishing somewhat the present wasteful use of "butchers' meats" with positive advantage to the consumer. Many facts in support of this position will appear as we proceed. But another important object in furnishing the foregoing details is to point out how combinations of the nitrogenous, starchy, fatty, and mineral elements may be made, in well-proportioned mixtures, so as to produce what I have termed a "perfect" dish—perfect, that is, so far as the chief indication is concerned, viz., one which supplies every demand of the body, without containing any one element in undue proportion. For it is obvious that one or two of these elements may exist in injurious excess, especially for delicate stomachs, the varied peculiarities of which, as before insisted on, must sometimes render necessary a modification of all rules. Thus it is easy to make the fatty constituent too large and thereby derange digestion, a result frequently experienced by persons of sedentary habits, to whom a little pastry, a morsel of *foie gras*, or a rich cream is a source of great discomfort, or of a "bilious attack;" while the outdoor labourer, who requires much fatty

* Kent & Co., the well-known makers of domestic appliances, i Holborn, supply such mills.

material for his work, would have no difficulty in consuming a large quantity of such compounds with advantage. Nitrogenous matter also is commonly supplied at all middle-class tables beyond the eater's wants; and if more is consumed than can be used for the purposes which such aliment subserves, it must be eliminated in some way from the system; and probably, as we have seen, by some uncomfortable method.

Quitting the subject of wheat and the leguminous seeds, it will be interesting to review briefly the combinations of rice, which furnishes so large a portion of the world with a vegetable staple of diet. Remembering that it contains chiefly starch, with nitrogen in small proportion, and almost no fat or mineral elements, and just sufficing perhaps to meet the wants of an inactive population in a tropical climate, the first addition necessary for the people who dwell on the temperate margin of this limit, and just beyond it, will be fat, and, after that, more nitrogen. Hence an illustration of one of the first efforts to make a dish of rice "complete" is afforded by the addition of butter and a little Parmesan cheese, in the simple *risotto*, from which, as a starting point, improvement, both for nutritive purposes and for the demands of the palate, may be carried to any extent (see p. 93). Fresh additions are made in the shape of marrow, of morsels of liver, &c., of meat broth with onion and spice, which constitute the mixture, when well prepared, nutritious and highly agreeable. The analogue

of this mainly Italian dish is the *pilau* or *pilaff* of the orientals, consisting, as it chiefly does, of rice lightly boiled in the broth of a fowl: a basis susceptible of various slight modifications and additions. The curry of rabbit or of poultry and the kedgeree of fish are further varieties which it is unnecessary to describe. Following the same combination to Spain, we find it a popular national dish, not greatly differing from the foregoing, in the *pollo con arroz*, which consists of abundance of rice, stewed with a little broth and containing morsels of fowl, bacon, and sausage, with appetising spices, and sufficing for an excellent meal.

Another farinaceous product of world-wide use is the maize or Indian corn. With a fair amount of nitrogen, starch, and mineral elements, it contains also a good proportion of fat, and is made into bread, cakes, and puddings of various kinds. It is complete, but susceptible of improvement by the addition of nitrogen. Hence in the United States, where it is largely used, it is often eaten with beans, under the name of "succotash." In Italy it is ground into the beautiful yellow flour which is conspicuous in the streets of almost every town; when made into a firm paste, by boiling in water, and sprinkled with Parmesan cheese, a nitrogenous aliment, it becomes what is known as *polenta*, and is largely consumed with some relish in the shape of fried fish, sardines, sausage, little birds, or morsels of fowl or goose, by which of course fresh nitrogen is added. Macaroni has been already alluded to in connection with wheat, from

which it is made; although rich in nitrogenous and starchy materials, it is deficient in fat. Hence it is boiled and eaten with butter and Parmesan (*à l'Italienne*) and with tomatoes, which furnish saline matters, with meat gravy or with milk.

Nearer home the potato forms a vegetable basis in composition closely resembling rice, and requiring therefore additions of nitrogenous and fatty elements. The Irishman's inseparable ally, the pig, is the natural, and to him necessary, complement of the tuber, making the latter a complete and palatable dish. The every-day combination of mashed potato and sausage is an application of the same principle. In the absence of pork, the potato eater substitutes a cheap oily fish, the herring. The combination of fatty material with the potato is still further illustrated in our baked potato and butter, in fried potatoes in their endless variety of form, in potato mashed with milk or cream, also served in the ordinary way with *maître d'hôtel* butter; finally arriving at the most perfect and finished combination in the *pommes de terre sautées au beurre* of a first-class French restaurant, where it becomes almost a *plat de luxe*. Even the simple bread and butter or bread and cheese of our own country equally owe their form and popularity to physiological necessity; the deficient fat of the bread being supplemented by the fatty elements of each addition, the cheese supplying also its proportion of nitrogenous matter, which exists so largely in its peculiar principle, caseine. So again, all the suet puddings, "short cake," plum cakes, pie-crust, or

pastry, whether baked or boiled, which consist simply of farinaceous food rendered stronger nutriment by the addition of fatty matter; are illustrations of the same principle unintentionally applied by their inventors.

In the same way almost every national dish might be analysed up to the *pot-au-feu* of our neighbours, the right management of which combines the nutritious quality of flesh with the abundant aroma and flavour of fresh vegetables which enter so largely into this economical and excellent mess. Among the poorer classes this dish is, of course, intended to supplement a considerable quantity of bread.

It will be apparent that, up to this point, our estimate of the value of these combinations has been limited, or almost so, by their physiological completeness as foods, and by their economical value in relation to the resources of that great majority of all populations, which is poor. But when the inexorable necessity for duly considering economy has been complied with, the next aim is to render food as easily digestible as possible, and agreeable to the senses of taste, smell and sight.

The hard labourer with simple diet, provided his aliment is complete and fairly well cooked, will suffer little from indigestion. He cannot be guilty, for want of means, of eating too much, fertile source of deranged stomach with those who have the means; physical labour being also in many circumstances the best preventive of dyspepsia. "Live on sixpence a day and earn it," attributed to Abernethy as the sum of his

dietary for a gluttonous eater, is a maxim of value, endorsed by millions. But for the numerous sedentary workers in shops, offices, in business and professions of all kinds, the dish must not only be "complete;" it must be so prepared as to be easily digestible by stomachs of moderate power, and it should also be as appetising and agreeable as circumstances admit.

CHAPTER IV.

Milk, an example of a natural "complete" food—Its employment as food, almost universal—Essentially an animal food—Exceedingly susceptible of injury—Mode of distribution, a fertile source of disease—Milk epidemics of fever, &c.—Composition of milk—Value as a diet—Whey—Koumiss—Means to be adopted in order to secure the purity and wholesomeness of milk.

THE term "complete," as we have seen in the foregoing chapter, is employed to denote that the food so designated contains all the elements necessary to the support of the body, and to the activity of its functions. Most commonly, such nourishment is a compound of two or more animal or vegetable substances, combined in order to afford the various elements necessary to meet all the demands of animal life. But there is a notable example of a single animal product, perhaps the best which can be offered as a complete food; one prepared by nature, furnished in great abundance, and which we are all well acquainted with, namely, milk. It is a product which slightly varies in different species of the mammalian family. That form which we are most familiar with is the milk of the cow, and it may be taken as the type. It forms so considerable and so valuable a part of the food of man in temperate climates, that some account of it is desirable here, par-

ticularly as the subject is rapidly growing in interest and importance, and as the popular knowledge respecting it is very imperfect.

I have said that the subject of milk is growing in importance; this is true on the following grounds. First, because it is essential to the well-being of young children to have milk which is produced of excellent quality at its source; and secondly, it is no less necessary that it should be unadulterated, or be otherwise uninjured in the processes of transit and distribution. Meantime, as our population grows more dense, sources of contamination increase, and the task of obtaining an absolutely pure supply is more difficult. Very much more is contained in these simple statements than is at first discerned by the popular eye.

Before making further comments thereupon, let us recall the fact that, excepting only the article of wheaten bread, milk is perhaps the most universally employed food in this country. And I am not quite sure that the exception made above is correctly stated to be so. Every man, woman, and child in the kingdom, with few exceptions, consume milk in some form at least once or twice daily; while for the youngest part of the community, during the most critical stage of early growth, milk forms the chief and the best source of nourishment. Now it is to be remembered in connection with these striking facts, that milk is a complex animal food, and one which so rapidly decomposes, that in hot weather a few hours suffice to injure it materially. Moreover, it is extremely liable to con-

tamination if exposed to impure atmospheric influences, &c. But the most serious danger connected with milk as food is associated with the vast daily process of distribution necessary in order to convey the product from the cow to the consumer. No doubt that water is wilfully added in some small quantity to a very large proportion of the supply in order to cheapen it; but where this is not done, all the vessels employed in dairy operations are more or less carefully and completely washed twice a day. It is this contact with water, employed by no means always, as it ought to be, at the boiling point, which constitutes the milk trade a ready and unceasing agency for the spread of three or four forms of disease among the population. It is only within the last few years that we have become aware that one of the chief methods by which typhoid fever, scarlet fever, and diphtheria are propagated, is by the agency of this great organization which conveys the daily milk from the cow to every house in the empire. Water which contains the smallest admixture of sewage matter is naturally, amidst the innumerable chances afforded, now and then contaminated with the excreta of persons suffering from infectious disease; and thus, in its very employment for cleansing milk vessels, the seeds of fatal disease may be deposited in a single milk can, from which twenty families, say, are supplied. It is foolish, or worse, wilfully to shut our eyes to this, and similar sources of danger to the community, which are associated with the growth of population, or to affect,

after the fashion of certain teachers, that it is the part of wisdom to take the chances of life as it comes, and deliberately to avoid knowledge of its risks, although that knowledge alone can render them harmless and make life secure, healthful, and enjoyable.

Had such counsel been listened to by our forefathers, the mortality from fever might still be in this country what it was forty years ago; moreover, we know that the cause now in question, like every other cause of fever, is a removable one, if reasonable precautions are taken. It was greatly due to the late Dr. Murchison, and to Mr. Ernest Hart, who more than anyone has studied this subject exhaustively, that the great epidemic of typhoid fever in the parish of Marylebone, in 1873, was traced to a single case at a country farm which supplied milk to a dairy in that parish; directly occasioning no less than 218 cases of fever among the customers of that dairy, of whom twenty-six died. From these a vast number of other [illegible]ses arose, how many could never by any inquiry be [illegible]rrectly estimated.

Since that time no less than eighty-one (separate) [illegible]idemics have been similarly traced in various parts [illegible] this country to milk distribution.*

The foregoing brief statements suffice to show the

* See an admirable and very concise account of the subject in a [illegible]per read at a meeting of the Social Science Congress, at Huddersfield, October, 1883, by Mr. Ernest Hart, and entitled, "Is it desirable [illegible] take any, and what, further measures to prevent the spread of [illegible]motic Diseases through the Milk Supply of our Towns?" (London: [illegible]nith, Elder & Co.)

importance of the dairy and its products, in connection with the subject of food, even when considered apart from the question of their dietetic value. I shall next proceed to describe the composition and characteristics of good milk, adding some remarks on its use as diet, and then indicate the practical mode in which those who are interested in obtaining it unadulterated and uncontaminated may attain their object.

Of good cow's milk, nearly one seventh part by weight is solid matter, the remainder is water.

Of this seventh part, rather more than a third is "lactose" or milk-sugar; rather less than a third is "casein," the basis of cheese; rather more than a fourth is "milk-fat," or cream; the small remainder being salts or mineral matter. The foregoing proportions are sufficiently correct for ordinary purposes, and are easily remembered. A more exact analysis is given here of the proportions in 100 parts of milk by weight.

Water		86·5
Solids—		
Milk fat or cream . .	3·9	
Casein or albuminoid .	4·2	
Milk sugar, or lactose . .	4·6	
Salts	·8	
		13·5
		100·0

The specific gravity is generally about 1030 to 103[illegible] at 60° Fah.; but specific gravity alone cannot [illegible]

regarded as an exact test of quality, since the quantity of cream varies with different specimens; and as cream is of lighter specific gravity than milk, a specimen of the latter which is extremely rich in cream, other ingredients being the same, will weigh lighter than one which is deficient in cream. But that a sample of milk exceptionally rich in cream should be offered for sale, although hypothetically possible, must be regarded as practically impossible in the last degree. The nutritive value of milk corresponds of course with the aggregate amount of all the solids contained, and for all purposes of the consumer, the specific gravity corresponds with that amount, the figure rising as the solids are augmented.

The specific gravity of unadulterated milk furnished by different healthy cows may be regarded as ranging between 1027 and 1035. But the mixed product of several such cows equals at least 1030 or 1031. If the milk furnished by any dealer is persistently below 1030, there is ground for complaint on the part of the customer; and I think it may be said that any metropolitan dairy of repute will furnish an uniform supply of milk decidedly above 1030. Nevertheless, there is a large quantity sold by the small dealers to the poor, of which the specific gravity is no more than 1025 or 1026. Nothing, however, is easier than to ascertain the real value of any sample which the purchaser desires to test. A lactometer may be bought for 2*s.* 6*d.*: it is only necessary to float it in a jug of milk, and the figure on its scale which is level with the surface of

the milk is the specific gravity; the temperature should be about 60° Fah.

Where an exact analysis is required, as for example, to determine the question of fining a fraudulent dealer, the value of the sample has to be found, by ascertaining the amount of solids present, apart from the cream, and estimating the latter separately.

The Society of Public Analysts requires a minimum of "nine per cent of solids, not fat;" and any sample which does not reach that amount has almost invariably been adulterated with water, and the seller of it is liable to a fine. But "nine per cent." is a low standard, determined on to avoid the infliction of hardship on any small dealer who may have been supplied from the country with a genuine, though exceptionally poor milk, of which the solids did not exceed nine per cent.; and it may probably yet be altered. Hence vast quantities of milk which are sold every day at that standard, contain a good deal of added water. The standard of the best metropolitan dairies, whose interest it is to supply unadulterated milk, is always higher.

Milk is essentially the food of the growing animal. Supplied by nature for the rapid development of the young calf, it is, with a little modification, admirably adapted for our young children. It is excellent food, too, for some adults, by no means for all. Those who take much exercise, or follow laborious occupations, may make it a useful portion of their dietary. It is rarely suitable for sedentary persons, or for those who

have reached the latter stage of life when the powers diminish, and the habits become less active than heretofore. As a drink at meal time, it is for the most part undesirable; for liquids taken with solid food need not be nutritious, indeed are better not to be so: they are rather required to dilute and dissolve the latter; nutritive material being for the most part abundantly supplied by the solid constituents of a meal.

Milk forms a more suitable form of drink when the fat has been removed, when in short it has been skimmed. If the casein is also taken out, as in cheese-making, the whey, which now contains little besides the sugar and the salts, is a very wholesome beverage, when fresh. Milk may be fermented also, and an agreeable light effervescing drink results, known as Koumiss, and largely used in Russian Tartary, where it is made chiefly from the milk of the mare, which slightly differs from that of the cow. The latter, however, is now treated here in the same way; and is in no respect inferior; it is widely recognised as useful in some chronic complaints, and is becoming increasingly popular.

In order to ensure unadulterated and uncontaminated milk, it is necessary to adopt habitually certain precautions, or the probability of obtaining that which is impure at some time or another, during the long array of chances which life affords, is not inconsiderable. This fact makes it desirable that the milk trade should be subjected to official sanitary supervision. For the present the following hints for guidance may be useful.

First. In country districts, where the consumer is commonly supplied direct from the farm, it should be ascertained that the dairy is completely detached from all the drains of the house and yards, and that the well used for dairy washing should be uncontaminated by sewage. It should be an absolute rule that all vessels are scalded once a day at least with boiling water.

Secondly. When in such districts infectious disease occurs in the dairy farm, no milk should be distributed on any pretext, until the sources of infection have disappeared.

Thirdly. When doubt exists as to the source of milk, as during a fever epidemic, and no milk absolutely beyond suspicion is to be had, it should be well boiled before it is used as food, by which process it is rendered safe. Some of those who have most studied the subject, are so impressed with its importance, and especially in relation to the interests of the family, as to advise that all milk should be boiled before it is consumed. They believe that it is wise to regard milk as a raw food, undesirable, on the grounds above stated, for human consumption, until it has been cooked. Continental travellers will do well to take it in this form, and as it is always thus served for *café-au-lait* abroad, there is no difficulty in obtaining it at any time.

Fourthly. In all large towns and in the metropolis, milk should be obtained solely from some extensive organization of high repute, well known to have made

it an absolute principle of its business to distribute milk solely from sources which are held under vigilant supervision by a competent person. Moreover, every can of milk received from the country for distribution should be examined for quality, before being delivered to the public. This is a mode of proceeding which is now thoroughly understood and practised, at least in London; and there is no real difficulty in adopting such precautions, as well as others not less important, as has been practically proved for several years, at least by one great institution, on a large scale, in this metropolis. For the present, it is incumbent on every housekeeper who regards the health of his family, to exercise caution after the manner here indicated. At no distant period, all country dairies from whence milk is sent away for sale, as well as the public milk-shops held by dealers in towns, will, without doubt, be subject to official inspection, and be regulated by sanitary enactments. In the accomplishment of this ceaseless task of milk distribution, almost nothing can be done by any single individual to avert the dangers to which carelessness and misfortune expose him; while well-devised arrangements of the nature suggested may render him almost secure.

CHAPTER V.

Food of the middle-class Englishman—Baking and roasting—Braising, methods of—Stewing—*Bœuf à la mode*—Opposite principles in French and English cookery—Superiority of each in some particulars—Frying, and its action on materials of food—The omelette.

On questioning the average middle-class Englishman as to the nature of his food, the all but universal answer is, "My living is plain, always roast and boiled"—words which but too clearly indicate the dreary monotony, not to say unwholesomeness, of his daily food; while they furthermore express his satisfaction, such as it is, that he is no luxurious feeder, and that, in his opinion, he has no right to suffer from an indigestion. Joints of beef and mutton, of which we all know the very shape and changeless odours, follow each other with unvarying precision, six roast to one boiled, and have done so ever since he began to keep house some five-and-twenty years ago! I am not sanguine enough to suppose that this unbroken order, which rules the dietary of the great majority of British families of moderate and even of ample means, will be disturbed by any suggestions of mine. Nevertheless, in some younger households, where habits followed for want of thought or knowledge have not yet hardened

into law, there may be a disposition to adopt a healthier diet and a more grateful variety of aliment. For variety is not to be obtained in the search for new animal food. Often as the lament is heard that some new meat is not discovered, that the butcher's display of joints offers so small a range for choice, it is not from this source that wholesome and pleasing additions to the table will be obtained.

But our most respectable paterfamilias, addicted to "plain living," might be surprised to learn that the vaunted "roasting" has no longer in his household the same significance it had five-and-twenty years ago; and that probably, during the latter half of that term, he has eaten no roast meat, whatever he may aver to the contrary. Baking, at best in a half-ventilated oven, has long usurped the function of the spit in most houses, thanks to the ingenuity of economical range-makers. And the joint, which formerly turned in fresh air, and was basted before a well-made fire, is now half stifled in a close atmosphere of its own vapours, much to the destruction of the characteristic flavour of a roast. No doubt modern range-makers have to some extent improved the oven by ventilating it, but a true roast, constantly watched and basted at the proper time, is only to be produced before the open fire.

Again, in relation to our present object, the defect just described is perhaps not less considerable than our neglect in this country of the process of braising as a valuable one in the preparation of animal food. By

this I understand, of course, a mode of cooking superior in some respects to that which the term "stewing" denotes.

In braising, the meat is just covered with a strong liquor of vegetable and animal juices (technically called *braise* or *mirepoix*) in a closely covered vessel, from which as little evaporation as possible is permitted, and is exposed for a considerable time to a surrounding heat just short of boiling. By this treatment tough fibrous flesh, even if old, whether of poultry, of cattle, or meat unduly fresh, such as it is difficult to avoid during the summer heats in towns, is made tender and easily digestible. Moreover, it becomes impregnated with the odours and flavour of fresh vegetables and sweet herbs, while the liquor itself, slowly reduced in the process, furnishes the most appropriate, fragrant, and delicious sauce, with which to surround the portion when served at table. Thus, also, meats which are dry, or with little natural flavour, as veal, become saturated with juices, and combined with sapid substances, which render the food succulent and delicious to the palate. Small portions sufficing for a single meal, however small the family, can be thus dealt with; so that a *réchauffé*, or cold meat for to-morrow, is not a thing of necessity, but only of choice when preferred.

To judge by the braised products which rarely appear on English tables, and by such descriptions of it as exist in our cookery books, the process itself is scarcely understood. Certainly it is not one uniform

method, to which the term is applied, and consequently the cook's conception of it is apt to be somewhat loose and indefinite.

The first principle essential to a braise, is, that the meat so to be treated must be very slowly cooked; in a closely covered vessel; and with a small quantity of liquid.

The second principle is, that the meat shall be impregnated in this process with the flavours of vegetables, herbs, &c., and of some spices, and, if desired, with wine. This is to be done by placing in the braise-pot around the meat, slices of ham or bacon, cut carrots, parsnips, turnips, onions, various herbs, a bay leaf, cloves and other spices, and a little wine; together with a small quantity of good meat stock. Another way of conducting the braise is to make beforehand a strong decoction of all these materials, with stock, and wine serving in part to flavour, and in part to preserve the liquor, and reducing the whole, making, in fact, what is called a *mire-poix*. A small quantity of this is then to serve as the fluid in which the portion of meat or bird, &c., is to be braised.

The third principle is not generally considered absolutely essential to the process; although it is undoubtedly the last refinement necessary to produce a first-rate braise. It is that of partially browning or half-roasting the portion also; and this may be accomplished in two ways. The legitimate or original way of doing this, is, to have well fitted to the braise-pot a

sunk copper or iron cover, in which some hot coals or charcoal are placed, in order to transmit downwards a scorching heat to the top of the portion which is uncovered by the liquid in the pot below. In this case it is usual to cover the portion, especially if a fowl, with a piece of white paper, which serves to shield a delicate morsel from a too fierce heat. The other and inferior way is to very lightly roast the meat, before putting it into the pot to braise, and so dispense with the coals on the cover; but this hardens it, and prevents the juices penetrating.

It may be seen then, that a braise in which no roasting is employed, does not, after the necessary materials have been prepared, require a great deal of attention, if the cook knows the corner of the fire or hot plate, where the slow and very gentle simmering will maintain itself regularly for two or three hours.

Common braising or stewing, that is, conducted without the coals on the lid, and without a previously prepared liquor, is well illustrated in the production of a well-known French dish, *bœuf à la mode*, which is always good, when served in a simple, inexpensive manner for the people, and may be rendered most excellent with more care and refinement, so as to be suitable at a table of the highest rank. I shall subjoin Gouffé's receipt; he regards the process as an important and typical one, and gives it at length. See APPENDIX, page 161.

I have a general observation to make relative to the

treatment of flesh in cookery (butcher's meat, poultry, and game), which finds its place appropriately here. It may be easily recognized that two opposite principles dominate that treatment, within certain limits, and that one of these characterizes the best English cookery, while the other has been, and still is to a large extent, the ruling principle of French cookery. Both are rational—each perhaps in turn the better one in its place; and only illogical products and examples of defective taste can arise in practical cookery by confounding the two ideas, an error however which is far from uncommon. In spite of the admiration which it is impossible to withhold for the talent of the French cook, it is nevertheless in France that the confusion I speak of is chiefly to be met with. And it is only in our own country, I venture to affirm, that the former of the two principles is carried out to perfection. That principle is, that our own meat and game shall be presented at table in the highest state of perfection attainable, so far as breeding, feeding, and keeping can accomplish it: each animal, when served, to be characterized by its own proper flavour, which is on no account to be masked or disguised by others, which are adventitious. Delicate additions tending to heighten the natural flavour, or agreeably subordinated to it, shall alone be admitted. It is a principle which can be successfully followed only where these meats exist in high perfection: where meat is inferior or insipid, an opposite treatment is the better one. And I do not hesitate to claim for

the intelligent English consumer, that it has long been essentially his aim to cultivate the best meat and game in the world, and to enjoy it for its own sake, unalloyed by any of those sauces which are so valuable for improving materials which are wanting in quality or flavour.

The opposite principle is that which has been developed in association with the production of meats and poultry which are naturally somewhat insipid. Since it has been the custom not to rear in France fine mature beef or mutton, as we understand those meats here, but rather to consume almost exclusively an immature product, veal, as well as poultry, much of which, although the best of its kind, is naturally wanting in sapid character; these have become, and rightly so, the vehicles of various delicious adventitious flavours, for which purpose the white meats are valued rather than for their inherent qualities. This character of veal is illustrated in a passage occurring in the first number of the famous *Almanach des Gourmands*, which appeared in Paris at the commencement of the present century:—"Veal lends itself to so many metamorphoses that we may fairly term it 'the chameleon of cookery.'"* Precisely the same view is held by Brillat-Savarin, but in relation to poultry, when he says, "Poultry is for cookery what canvas is to the painter."† In such conditions, therefore, it is natural that French cuisine should be essentially

* *Almanach des Gourmands.* Paris, 1803, p. 17.

† *Physiologie du Goût.* Paris, 1843, p. 30.

distinguished for its sauces, by which it adorns and transforms material in itself somewhat uninteresting or uninviting.

The Englishman loves the flavour of three or four years old mutton (unhappily almost a tradition now), mature beef, the wildest game, both winged and ground; and he cares not how little of "sauce" is supplied—he demands only "gravy"—so that they are in fine condition and simply cooked, for the most part carefully roasted. To lard mutton or venison is, for him, to desecrate them; to lard or farce a grouse or partridge is dishonour equally to the game and to the guest. An English partridge is not improved, I venture to submit, even by barding, although the reverse is true of quail.

The French *chef* treats the white meat, veal and domestic poultry, with so many ingeniously contrived sauces, as to render those two meats as good as six. So successful is the achievement, that he is too often tempted to extend his art to dark-fleshed game, and seeking to adorn it with new flavours, destroys the original savour and aroma, in which consists the value of the dish.

During the last few years, however, a change has been slowly taking place in the practice of the best French cooks in this respect, better and more mature meat is to be found in Paris than formerly. I have recently seen served there, as the latest idea of perfection, a fine wild duck, lightly roasted, served without an atom of sauce; only with abundance of

hot rich red gravy, expressed on the table before us by a powerful machine, from all that remained of the bird when the breast had been fully sliced on the hot plates of the two guests who partook of it. The pinions, legs and back, indeed all but the sliced breast, had contributed their entire juices in the form of about a small cupful of what might be called the essence of the bird. Such precisely accords with our own view of what is the best, and was most admirably realized. Let us continue to cultivate the finest meats, and to present them simply, and we shall have no cause to be ashamed of the course in which they appear at an English table. In making the best of second-rate and insipid morsels we may still learn with advantage.

The art of frying is little understood, and the omelette is almost entirely neglected by our countrymen. The products of our frying-pan are often greasy, and therefore for many persons indigestible, the shallow form of the pan being unsuited for the process of boiling in oil, that is, at a heat of nearly 500° Fahr., that of boiling water being 212°. This high temperature produces results, which are equivalent indeed to quick roasting, when the article to be cooked is immersed in the boiling fat. Frying, as generally conducted, is rather a combination of broiling and toasting or scorching; and the use of the deep pan of boiling oil or dripping, which is essential to the right performance of the process, and especially preventing greasiness, is a rare exception, and not the

rule in ordinary kitchens. The principle on which success depends is, that at the moment of contact with the almost boiling oil, a thin film of every part of the surface of the fish or other object to be fried is coagulated, so that the juices with their flavours, &c., are at once locked up within, and no quality can escape. The bath of oil should therefore be in quantity sufficient, and also be hot enough, to effect this result in an instant, after which, and during the few minutes requisite to cook the interior, the heat is often slightly lowered with advantage. The fish emerges when done, with a surface to which a little oil adheres, but this will drain off owing to its extreme fluidity when hot, if left on a napkin slanting a minute or two before the fire; it may thus be served absolutely free from grease. The film of egg often applied to the surface of an object to be fried, is in the same manner instantly coagulated and forms an impermeable case; while the fine bread crumbs adhering to it take a fine yellow colour from being slightly charred by the high temperature they are exposed to.

Excellent and fresh olive oil, which need not be so perfect in tint and flavour as the choicest kinds reserved for the salad-bowl, is the best available form of fat for frying, and is sold at a moderate price by the gallon for this purpose at the best Italian warehouses. Nothing, perhaps, is better than well-clarified beef dripping, such as is produced, often abundantly, in every English kitchen; but the time-honoured traditions of our perquisite system enable any Eng-

lish cook to sell this for herself, at small price, to a little trader round the corner, while she buys, at her employer's cost, a quantity of pork lard for frying material, at double the price obtained for the dripping. Lard is, moreover, the worst menstruum for the purpose, the most difficult to work in so as to free the matters fried in it from grease; and we might be glad to buy back our own dripping from the aforesaid little trader, at a profit to him of cent. per cent., if only the purchase could be diplomatically negotiated. But so sweet is acquisition by way of perquisite, that none of the present race of cooks appear disposed to part with this particular one for any consideration which can be offered. They are doubtless, after their fashion, true to their order, and regard in the light of sacrilege any interference with these principles and traditions.

There is one dish which may be mentioned here appropriately, of which English cooks have not much practical knowledge; very few can make a tolerable omelette: and thus one of the most delicious and nutritious products of culinary art, with the further merit that it can be more rapidly prepared than any other dish, must really at present be almost regarded as an exotic. The method of proceeding is one which it is almost impossible to describe in writing, and no cookery book instructions which I have ever seen convey a notion of the necessary manipulation in which the whole art consists—to the uninitiated. Competent instruction at first and a little practice are

required, in order to attain a mastery in producing an omelette; but these given, there is no difficulty in turning out a first-rate specimen. The ability to do this may be so useful in the varied circumstances of travel, &c., that no young man destined for foreign service, or even who lives in chambers, should fail to attain the easily acquired art.

CHAPTER VI.

Preparation of Food continued—Soups—*Pot-au-feu*—The Stock-pot—*Bouillon*—*Consommé*—Mode of producing endless variety—The foundations of all Soups—Fish Soups and Stews—Vegetable Soups—Use of the Gridiron—Garnishes—Cookery of Vegetables *à l'Anglaise* and *à la Française*—Fish and various modes of Cooking it—Sauces—Cooking of Maccaroni and of Rice—Cold Meats—Salads.

I THINK it may be said that soups, whether clear (that is, prepared from the juices of meat and vegetables only), or thick (that is, *purées* of animal or vegetable matters), are far too lightly esteemed by most classes in England, while they are almost unknown to the working man. For the latter they might furnish an important cheap and savoury dish; by the former they are too often regarded as the mere prelude to a meal, to be swallowed hastily, or disregarded altogether as mostly unworthy of attention. The great variety of vegetable *purées*, which can be easily made and blended with light animal broths, admits of daily change in the matter of soup to a remarkable extent, and affords scope for taste in the selection and combination of flavours. The use of fresh vegetables in abundance — such as carrots, turnips, artichokes, celery, cabbage, sorrel, leeks, and

onions—renders such soups wholesome and appetising. The supply of garden produce ought in this country to be singularly plentiful; and, owing to the unrivalled means of transport, all common vegetables ought to be obtained fresh in every part of London. The contrary, however, is unhappily the fact. It is a matter of extreme regret that vegetables, dried and compressed after a modern method, should be so much used as they are for soup, by hotel-keepers and other caterers for the public. Unquestionably useful as these dried products are on board ship, and to travellers camping out, to employ them at home, when fresh can be had, is the result of sheer indolence or of gross ignorance. All the finest qualities of scent and flavour, with some of the fresh juices, are lost in the drying process; and the infusions of preserved vegetables no more resemble a freshly made odoriferous soup, than a cup of that thick brown, odourless, insipid mixture, consisting of some bottled "essence" dissolved in hot water, and now supplied as coffee at most railway stations and hotels in this country, resembles the recently made infusion of the freshly roasted berry. It says little for the taste of our countrymen that such imperfect imitations are so generally tolerated without complaint.

How different is the result of intelligent cookery, as we find it exemplified in the simple national soup of France. Here the appetising odours of fresh meat and vegetables are discerned with pleasure, the moment a *pot-au-feu* enters the room. Relative to

this dish so much has of late appeared in public prints, failing to explain what is understood in France by it, that I think an accurate description of what it really is may prove acceptable here.

The *pot-au-feu* is a composite dish which produces, first a simple, but not strong, beef broth (*bouillon*), well flavoured by fresh vegetables; secondly, a somewhat over-cooked and exhausted piece of beef (*bouilli*) which is served after the soup; and, lastly, the vegetables themselves.

This is a different thing from the common "stock-pot" of the French peasant, so frequently termed a *pot-au-feu*, and confounded with it. The primary object of a "stock-pot" is to make a decoction or basis for soup—of animal food, if possible—and every morsel of flesh, poultry, trimmings from joints, bones well bruised, &c., which are available for the purpose, are reserved for it. To the pot of the peasant, who wastes nothing whatever, all things are welcome; and every atom of nutritive material—solid or liquid—goes into it, to which are always added herbs and vegetables, together with the liquor in which any of the latter may chance to have been boiled. But sometimes it is a *pot maigre*, no meat of any kind having been procurable, and very good vegetable soups, moreover, are educible therefrom, of which more hereafter. Then again, besides, or instead of the slices of bread which are usually put into the broth when served, the good wife now and then cleans a fresh cabbage, boils it in water, as much as possible

of which she removes by pressure in a cloth, then puts the cabbage for a few minutes into her pot, and finally serves it as a welcome addition to the dish. But in none of these forms can the true *pot-au-feu* be recognised; and no Frenchman who has the least acquaintance with the national cookery will allow it to rank as one.

The *pot-au-feu* has for its object, as already stated, not only the making of a well-flavoured *beef* broth, but the cooking of a portion of the beef to be eaten separately after, either cold or hot, according to taste, together with the vegetables necessarily associated with it. Formerly, this *bouilli* always appeared at an ordinary French table immediately after the *bouillon*; but, strictly speaking, it is not worth eating, certainly by those who can afford better food, and it has a good deal disappeared during the last few years. So the *pot-au-feu* has come to signify at ordinary tables only a soup, and it may appear at the best tables in that capacity; still, strictly as a beef broth, but of the most perfect kind, well seasoned and flavoured by herbs and vegetables.

To return to the family stock-pot. This has, on the Continent, especially in families of the middle class, another use beside that of preparing a basis for soup. Thus when a boiled fowl is required, it is a common practice to conduct the process in the simmering pot. Any nutritive matter, however small, which might have been lost in the water used in ordinary boiling, is saved for the soup, while the fowl

boiled in stock is certainly preferred when it comes to table, to one which has been boiled in water. And so with many other articles; for example, a small and well cleaned ham may be cooked—and this is an affair of several hours—in a capacious stock-pot, with advantage equally to the soup and the ham, provided, of course, that the ham has already been soaked some twenty-four hours or so beforehand to remove superfluous salt; nor should any salt be put into the stock-pot itself when required for this operation.

But besides the *bouillon* of the *pot-au-feu* there is the *grand bouillon* also, a distinct and elementary product of French cookery; this is a decoction, stronger than the preceding, of beef and veal, with any supplementary bone and sinew from the butcher, in order to add gelatine; and this is combined also with vegetables. Lastly, there is the *consommé*, which is a decoction of beef, veal, and fowl, the two latter partially roasted for the purpose of heightening flavour; and it is made, not with water, but with *bouillon*—Gouffé orders the *grand bouillon* just described—and with a few more vegetables. This is therefore the highest form of soup from beef, veal, poultry, and vegetables which can be produced.

Now, as the mode of making *pot-au-feu* is an important initial step in the art of soup-making, I shall place in an appendix at the end of this volume, a somewhat abridged translation of the very complete instructions given by Gouffé. The right management

is with him a matter of the highest importance; and, simple as the dish is, he devotes no less than nine pages to the task of illustrating the elementary principles of cookery which are involved in the process.

By way of further illustrating the subject, I shall place there also some extracts relating to it, which are extremely interesting, from Brillat-Savarin's *Physiologie du Goût*, and also from Dumas' *Grand Dictionnaire de Cuisine.*

It is not at all surprising that many persons should be somewhat bewildered by the almost endless variety of appellation under which the single article of soup is presented at table. It has been estimated that the titles which denote these numerous varieties, number altogether not less perhaps than five hundred. And proceeding on the principle on which these are produced, there appears to be no reason why even the present list should not be doubled in length. In reality the number of species is very limited; but the slightest addition to a soup having been held sufficient to confer upon it a distinctive name, the idea of complexity and number has been unnecessarily fostered. Regarded analytically, there are but five leading species from which all varieties are produced by slight additions and combinations of flavour.

1. A clear decoction (weak, or "broth"; strong, or *consommé*) of meat: of beef, veal, sometimes mutton; and of pork in the form of ham or bacon.

2. A clear decoction of fowl.
3. A clear decoction of game.
4. A decoction of fish proper, and with shell fish (oysters, mussels, &c.).
5. A decoction of vegetables only, comprising also herbs, roots, grains, and farinaceous substances.

Any of these may be used as made at first hand; then most may be presented with some slight addition, such as with the well-known dried Italian pastes, and also fresh made pastes (*nouilles* and *quenelles*); cut fresh vegetables, in rounds, in squares, in long strips, fresh, or lightly fried before adding them, with crusts of bread, with an egg, &c.; each single addition denoted by a distinctive appellation, which will suggest itself in each example named above, to any one who has the least acquaintance with cookery.

The *consommé* of meat, or of veal, beef, and fowl mixed, or of game, may also be thickened by addition of a flesh, fowl, and game *purée* respectively; white soups, commencing with a *consommé* of veal and poultry, thickened with a *purée* of the white meat of fowl; and brown *purées* following, from *consommé* of beef and veal, and of game.

The same *consommé*, or the weaker broth, furnish bases for vegetable *purées* in like manner, either white or coloured. Many of these, like the others, have their distinctive names; *e.g.*, *purée* of carrot as Crécy, of green peas as S. Germain, of red haricots as Condé, and of artichokes, curiously enough, and by virtue of a bad pun, called Palestine.

Thus the variations and additions which may be made by means of a little skill in combination, are literally endless. A short list of exceptional soups, each with a distinct individual character, may still be referred to as not belonging to the above-mentioned classes.

Such as real turtle, made either in part or wholly from the live animal; a large proportion is prepared from the imported dried flesh, when the stock is almost invariably made from veal and beef;* after this come mock turtle or calf's head; ox-tail, mulligatawny; while giblet and "cock-a-leekie," are almost stews; the latter doubtless designed originally to present the patriarch of the poultry yard in an eatable form. Another Scotch soup, "hotch-potch," like an Italian "minestrone," may contain almost a meal of fragrant combinations.

Then there is an important distinction, recognised chiefly on the Continent, and related to the demands of religious observance, between soups which have meat for their basis (*potage gras*), and those which have

* An amusing controversy took place last autumn in consequence of my having stated in a paper read at the Fisheries Exhibition that turtle soup when "*at its best*" was composed of a stock made from the conger eel, the turtle furnishing the garnish and the name. The turtle soup makers rushed into print, especially some well-known artists at the East end of London, who used language which was more remarkable for force than for elegance. Never was there a more striking illustration of the proverb, "*qui s'excuse s'accuse.*" I had never brought any accusation against any turtle soup maker: I had merely expressed the opinion given above; one to which I still firmly adhere. Much less was I guilty of affirming in any of my writings, that the artists above alluded to had ever made turtle soup, "at its best!"

fish, or exclusively vegetable bases (*potage maigre*); into the latter class also, eggs are admitted. All these take rank of course among the five classes first named; but they are referred to separately here in order to draw attention to a fact not generally recognised in this country, that excellent soups may be made without employing meat.

Vegetable soups, clear and thick, are extremely palatable; the former being agreeable and wholesome, especially in the warm season when fresh vegetable growth is abundant, and full of juice and fragrance; and the latter or thick soup, may be very nutritious also, as already shown, since they contain a considerable quantity of barley, peas, beans, haricots, Indian corn, rice, &c. See receipts in the Appendix; page 164.

Nutritious and palatable soups may also be made from fish, the cheaper sorts being available for stock, while the better sorts are applicable as garnish. When we possess an adequate, and therefore cheap supply—an event which, with the enormous resources of this country, can only be a question of time—valuable soups and stews of fish and of shell fish, will be available for the poorer classes, whose tastes only require educating in order to appreciate them, doubtless also a work of some little time. I need only to refer to oyster soups, to the much esteemed *bisques*, a term usually denoting highly flavoured *purées* of crayfish, and to that delicious dish, *bouillabaise*, eaten in perfection at Marseilles, as among the most agreeable products of culinary art in this direction.

Thackeray's well-known rhymes do not exaggerate its good qualities, and enumerate its component elements almost with sufficient accuracy to direct the cook.* See Appendix, p. 165, for remarks on the selection and preparation of Fish; for receipts for fish soups and stew including details, with directions for preparing a Marsellaise Bouillabaise, p. 173.

I may conclude this brief sketch of soups by observing that the ability to make a good, fragrant, and clear *consommé*—and nothing is easier, granted a moderate intelligence and the power of executing simple details with care—affords the key to almost all. The preparation of vegetables and the making of *purées*, are merely mechanical processes, easily attained. The judgment necessary to add and combine spices, essences, and other sources of flavour, is the one element which when possessed, in addition to the character of an attentive, dexterous, and painstaking workman, essential to success in every profession, constitutes a finished cook, and denotes his or her rank. And thus it is that the department of sauces especially gives opportunity to develop and illustrate

*"This Bouillabaisse a noble dish is——
A sort of soup, or broth, or brew,
Or hotch-potch of all sorts of fishes
That Greenwich never could outdo:
Green herbs, red peppers, mussels, saffern,
Soles, onions, garlic, roach and dace;
All these you eat at Jerré's tavern
In that one dish of Bouillabaisse."

The Ballads.

these qualities; and here it is that the artist's skill is most clearly manifested.

The value of the gridiron is, perhaps, nowhere better understood than in England, especially in relation to chops, steak, and kidney; the blade bone, or even a small shoulder of mutton—all of which may be sent to table in the highest perfection from a clear fire, managed by careful and competent hands. Still it is not quite so widely appreciated as it deserves to be in the preparation of many a small dish of fish, fowl, and meat, or "bone," to say nothing of a grilled mushroom, either alone, or as an accompaniment to any of them. And it may be worth while, perhaps, remarking that the sauce *par excellence* for broils is mushroom ketchup; and the garnish cool lettuce, watercress, or endive.

And this consideration suggests a word or two on the important addition which may be made to most small dishes of animal food under the title of "garnish." Whether it be a small filet, braised or roasted, or a portion thereof broiled; a fricandeau, or the choice end of a neck of mutton made square and compact by shortening the bones; or a small loin, or a dish of trimmed neck cutlets, or a choice portion of broiled rumpsteak; a tender ox tongue, a couple of sweetbreads, poultry, pigeon, or what not—the garnish should be a matter of consideration. Whether the dish be carved on the family table, as it rarely fails to be when its head is interested in the cuisine, or whether it is handed in the presence of guests, the

quality and the appearance of the dish greatly depend on the garnish. According to the meat may be added, with a view both to taste and appearance, some of the following—*purées* of sorrel, spinach, chicory, and other greens, of turnips, and of potatoes plain, in shapes, or in croquettes; cut carrots, peas, beans, endive, sprouts, and other green vegetables; stewed onions, small or Spanish; cucumbers, tomatoes, macaroni in all forms; sometimes a few sultanas boiled, mushrooms, olives, truffles. In the same way chestnuts are admirable, whole, boiled, or roasted, and as a *purée* freely served, especially in winter, when vegetables are scarce; serving also as farce for fowls and turkeys. While such vegetables as green peas, French and young broad beans, celery and celeriac, asparagus, seakale, cauliflower, spinach, artichokes, salsify, vegetable marrows, &c., are worth procuring in their best and freshest condition, to prepare with especial care as separate dishes.*

* A hint about boiling asparagus is worthy of mention, since the proper method is rarely followed by English cooks.

Asparagus of the stouter sort, always when of the "giant" variety, should be cut of exactly equal lengths, and boiled, standing ends upward, in a deep saucepan. Nearly two inches of the heads should be out of the water—the steam sufficing to cook them, as they form the tenderest part of the plant; while the hard stalky part is rendered soft and succulent by the longer boiling which this plan permits. Instead of the orthodox twenty minutes allotted to average asparagus lying horizontally, in the English manner, which half cooks the stalk, and overcooks the head, diminishing its flavour and consistence, a period of thirty or forty minutes, on the plan recommended, will render fully a third more of the stalk delicious, while the head will be properly cooked by the steam alone. One reason why it is not

And here, again, the distinctive principles, already referred to, of French and English cuisine, are illustrated in relation to the cooking of vegetables; and again, let me add, not to the disadvantage of our own system. I find it the more necessary to call attention to this subject, as much has of late been said, which may lead many to believe that French usage is invariably right, and English usage invariably wrong. Very far from the truth, I humbly submit, is such an allegation as this, even in regard of our treatment of vegetables. No doubt we are too often guilty of carelessness and inattention to the condition in which vegetables are presented, in the service of our tables, but our principle is in the main correct, and only wants to be pursued with intelligence. When vegetables are really good, well grown, and fresh, no good judge desires that their natural qualities of flavour, odour, and consistence, or even colour, should be destroyed by the addition of other materials, and of foreign flavours. Let us take two, in illustration of these remarks, the pea and the tomato.

Garden peas, *petits pois*, when young, quickly grown, and fresh, have a delicious characteristic flavour of their own, are rather sweet, and almost crisp when eaten; and maintain these attributes unimpaired, if simply boiled in salt and water. Such should be eaten *à l'Anglaise*, the use of the term itself being a

uncommon to hear the best produce of the fields of Argenteuil insufficiently appreciated here, and our own asparagus preferred, is, that the former is rarely sufficiently cooked at English tables.

tacit admission on the part of the French *chef*, that the simple cooking advocated here, and practised in this country, is often right. All that is produced under this name is a dish of peas, cooked as described, with a pat of fresh butter, and some salt, accompanied by the capital little pepper-mill, which is natural to a French table, and almost unknown here. A morsel of the butter is stirred into the hot peas, a little black pepper, full of fragrance, freshly ground over them, and a pinch of salt, according to taste, and the whole stirred. The same process is equally applicable to French beans, and also to that excellent mixture of French beans and *flageolets*, so well-known as *panachés*, so rarely served in this country. All these vegetables, when in excellent condition, are doubtless served at their best, *à l'Anglaise*, not only in relation to the palate, but also in view of the average digestion. But who does not know that the common mode, both in town and province throughout France, is to serve not only French beans, but other vegetables, floating in rich, yellow, melted butter, rendering them for most English stomachs, at all events, hazardous, and to some repulsive.

To return to our *petits pois* as the type. When green peas are a little hard, old, and tough, or a little coarse in flavour, and without sweetness, then it is that the French cook treats them with advantage. For such peas as these, when no others are to be had —and it must be confessed that inferior peas are far too commonly met with—by all means let them be

served *à la Française*. This is stewing gently in a little water, a good proportion of butter, with sliced onion, and salt, stirring in a little flour, and a small quantity of sugar. Some, exceptionally, add a little cream, and yolk of egg. Another excellent French method, *à la Paysanne*, is to add first butter as before, salt and onion; and then stew slowly in a fair quantity of stock, with lettuces, finely sliced, some sugar, and a shred or two of parsley, if desired. Almost any peas may be rendered tender and appetising, if thus treated.

Again, *haricots verts sautés au beurre*, is a favourite mode of cooking them; but no superfluous butter should appear when they are served; the quantity allowed in which to toss them for a few minutes on a brisk fire, after boiling, should amount to no more, according to the rule, then a tenth part by weight of that of the vegetables themselves when dry.*

The natural inference from all this is, that certain French methods are desirable, and their success is remarkable, when—as we have already seen in relation to meats—the materials are inferior; but the English method is the simplest and best, when the materials

* Some persons who have not studied practical cookery may not quite understand the French term *sauter*, or the corresponding English term, "toss." It means, to fry lightly or partially in butter using a shallow pan, and, moving the material to be fried, or, rather, "tossed," so as to avoid the production of a temperature high enough to brown the surface—a condition which is intended to be produced by frying proper, as before explained (p. 66) to take place, by immersing the material in heated oil.

are—as they always should be—the best of their kind.

And now, briefly, for the tomato; in almost any condition, simple cookery alone is admissible for it. Doubtless, if ripe and fresh, it is best of all when eaten raw; but if served hot, only plain boiling, baking, or broiling, will cook this delicious half-fruit, half-vegetable, so as least to alter or diminish its natural flavour. But it is excellent also boiled and peeled when hot, and served cold, to eat, adding a little salt and pepper, with cold meat, or with savoury rice, or indeed in many ways. But to serve a hot tomato, by stuffing it with onion, parsley, and shalot, is mischievous meddling carried to its highest pitch! Yet this is almost the only form in which tomato appears at foreign tables. Certainly, Talleyrand's well-known caution, "*Trop de zèle,*" applies no less forcibly sometimes to professional cooks, than as a maxim for diplomatists.

It is doubtful whether fish is esteemed so highly as an aliment, as its nutritious qualities entitle it to be; while it offers great opportunity for agreeable variety in treatment. As a general observation, it may be said that in preparing it for table sufficient trouble is not taken to remove some portion of the bones; this can be advantageously done by a clever cook, without disfiguring or injuring the fish. Sauces should be appropriately served: for example, the fat sauces, as *hollandaise*, and other forms of melted butter, are an appropriate complement of hot boiled fish, while

mayonnaise is similarly related to cold. These and their variations, which are numerous, may also accompany both broiled and fried fish; but both are often more wholesome and agreeable when served with only a squeeze of lemon-juice, and a few grains of the zest, if approved, when a fresh green lemon is not to be had—and it rarely can be here. But the juice of the mushroom is preferred, and no doubt justly, by some. Endless variations and additions may be made according to taste on these principles. But there is another no less important principle, viz. that the fish itself often furnishes a sauce from its own juices, more appropriate than some of the complicated and not very digestible mixtures prepared by the cook. Thus "melted butter"—which is regarded as essentially an English sauce—when intended to accompany fish, should not be, as it almost invariably is, a carelessly made compound of butter, flour, and water; but in place of the last-named ingredient there should be a concentrated liquor made from the trimmings of the fish itself, with the addition of a few drops of lemon juice, and strengthened, if necessary, from other sources, as from shell-fish of some kind. Thus an every-day sauce of wholesome and agreeable quality is easily made: it finds its highest expression in that admirable dish, the sole with *sauce au vin blanc* of the French, or, as associated with shell-fish, in the *sole à la normande*.* Some fish furnish their

* A leading review, in a friendly notice of the above when it first appeared, spoke of a "mistake" made by me in "imagining a *sole en*

own sauce in a still simpler manner, of which an illustration no less striking is at hand in the easiest, but perhaps best mode of cooking a red mullet, viz., baking it, and securing the gravy of delicious flavour, which issues abundantly from the fish, chiefly from the liver, as its only sauce.

Closely related to the baking of fish is another mode

matelote normande to be a simpler dish than it really is." I certainly intended the sentence in which it is named, and which is reprinted above without change, to signify my high respect for this finished dish, and if I have not made this clear, I hereby desire to do so. It was named to show that the principle of employing the juices of fish, and especially of shell-fish, as a sauce, finds its *highest expression* in the *sole à la normande*. Turning to my copy of Jules Gouffé's classical work, p. 621-2 of the original edition, Paris, 1867, I see that he remark specially thereupon, "la recette que j'indique n'a pour base comme on a pu constater, que l'essence de poisson," precisely warranting what I had stated. It is understood, of course, that these juices are combined with a good *velouté* to make the sauce, and that it may be garnished further to any extent, according to the luxury demanded by the guest, or for the entertainment.

I have eaten *sole à la normande* several times in Paris, but nowhere so good as in the South of France; probably in part because the fish and garnish were fresher there.

Paris suffers greatly in the matter of fish by distance from the seaboard. London has a far fresher supply. No Frenchman knows what salmon is until he tastes, sometimes with much astonishment, a Severn or Christchurch fish, taken from the water in the morning, crimped on arrival in London in the afternoon, such as our leading fishmongers can supply during all the spring and summer in time for dinner. It is one of the few things which we are able to offer our neighbours without fear of rivalry.

Perhaps I ought to add, lest a doubt should exist in the mind of any one, that crimping thus done inflicts no pain whatever on the fish; were it otherwise I would not sanction it for any consideration whatever.

of cooking it, which is applicable to nearly every variety, and which has the advantage of retaining all the nutritive material, while the juices and the characteristic flavour are preserved in a manner not attained by any other process. It is rarely practised, because any other than those conventional methods which have been universally employed in cookery are slowly adopted by the public, until attention has been thoroughly aroused on the subject. Nevertheless the method I am about to advocate is widely applicable, and well deserves at least to rank among the other and better known modes of preparing fish. It consists in placing the fish, after the usual cleaning, entire, if of moderate size, say from a sole to a small turbot or dory, in a tin or plated copper dish adapted to the form and size of the fish, but a little deeper than the thickness of it, so as to retain all the juices; which by exposure to the heat will flow out. First, however, the surface of the fish is to be lightly spread with butter, and a morsel or two added round it; the dish is then to be placed in a Dutch or American oven, in front of a clear fire.* The advantages of this method are, that the fish is cooked entirely in its own juices, which are abundant, and form the best sauce, and that these juices which contain part of the nutriment and much of the charac-

* Mr. W. Burton of Oxford Street, some time ago made for me an oven and dishes expressly for the purpose of cooking fish before the fire. The oven is a modification of that known as the "American," being rather deeper, from before backwards, and much shallower, from above downwards, on account of the flat form of fish not occupying the space which is required by joints of meat.

teristic flavour are saved and utilised; lastly, the direct action of the fire browning the surface of the fish, gives that appetising flavour which is the especial charm of the "roast" and the "grill," and which is known to appreciative palates as "tasting of the fire." In fact, the proper term for denoting the method described, is that of "roasting," for the fish is literally roasted before the fire, and basted in its own gravy; and with the same advantage in result as that which roasted meat possesses by universal consent over that which is baked in an oven. It is necessary to guard against over-roasting so as to dry the fish and evaporate the gravy; and if through carelessness this condition has been reached, the fish should be moistened by the addition of a little light stock before serving; and this is always done on the dish in which the cooking has taken place. The method is susceptible of innumerable variations to accommodate different tastes. Portions of fish prepared as fillets may be treated as well as entire fish; garnishes of all kinds, as shell-fish, &c., may be added, flavouring also with fine herbs and condiments, according to taste. I may add that the process may be conducted in an oven where a clear fire is really not to be had, which is then of course ordinary baking; but this dries the fish unduly; or the dish may be first placed in the oven, and be finished before the fire, which is better. Cooked, however, as first described, such a dish may be welcome at any table; in preparing red mullet, for example, as just referred to, it is inimitable; while a fresh haddock

takes higher rank by being thus treated. But the working man also can thus advantageously cook before his kitchen fire, in a common Dutch oven, some fillets of plaice or skate with a slice or two of bacon; the dish to be filled or garnished with some previously boiled haricots, and by this means he may secure an economical and most savoury meal, which is at the same time nutritious. This is but a single illustration among many which might be adduced, of what may be done by this simple method for those whose resources are of the slenderest kind.

It is certainly to be lamented that so little use is made in our country of the Italian pastes, macaroni in all its forms; and that rice, largely used as it is, is not so well cooked, and therefore not so highly appreciated among the upper and middle classes as it deserves to be.

The mention of macaroni conveys to nineteen out of twenty Englishmen, as it does also to our cooks, the idea of an indigestible mess, containing much toasted cheese and butter, well peppered and over baked, which is sometimes served at the end of dinner as "*bout*," or savoury *entremets*. In this form it ought rarely if ever to appear. Macaroni is, in fact, an aliment of very high nutritious power, being formed chiefly of the gluten, the most valuable part of the wheat from which the starch has been removed. Weight for weight, it may be regarded as not less valuable for flesh-making purposes, in the animal economy, than beef and mutton. Most people can digest it more

easily and rapidly than meat: it offers, therefore, an admirable substitute for meat, particularly for lunch or mid-day meals, among those whose employments demand continuous attention during the whole of a long afternoon. To dine, or eat a heavy meal in the middle of the day is, for busy men, a great mistake: one nevertheless which is extremely common, and productive of great discomfort, to say the least. Macaroni might, with advantage to the public, and especially to city men, who are closely occupied between breakfast and dinner, be prepared at the restaurants there as a staple dish, in two or three forms, since it sustains the power without taxing too much the digestion, or rendering the individual heavy, sleepy, and incompetent afterwards. One of the best forms for serving it is that known as *macaroni à l'Italienne*, a simple and excellent mode of preparing which is as follows:

Place in a quart stewpan a pint and a half of boiling water; throw in four ounces of macaroni; season with salt and pepper, and boil gently for twenty minutes. Strain completely from the water in a colander, wipe out the stewpan, and put back into it the macaroni, with a quarter of a pint of good stock; let it simmer gently until all the liquid is absorbed by the macaroni, a process requiring about twenty minutes. Grate and mix together an ounce of Parmesan and an ounce of Gruyère or good English cheese. Half of this quantity is to be put into the stewpan, stirring the cheese into the maca-

roni over the fire. When this quantity is dissolved, add the rest of the cheese, together with rather more than half an ounce of butter, and stir until all is melted. Season, and serve in a hot deep dish. The macaroni ought to "spin" well, that is to say, delicate fibres should extend from one portion to another when moved. It may be eaten with or without tomato sauce, which makes an excellent addition.

If, instead of stock, milk is used, an agreeable change may be made. Abroad, this constitutes *macaroni au maigre*, the foregoing receipt being *au gras*. I may add that, for many English stomachs the quantity of cheese named above is too large. I have given the proportions ordered by Gouffé, but should, as a rule, prefer only half the Gruyère and half the butter.

Macaroni au jus is prepared in the same way, but the stock should be better, and rather more of it in proportion to the macaroni should be added, so that all the gravy is not absorbed, but some left adhering in the form of a thick glaze, after slowly reducing over the fire. It should be seasoned with a little catsup or sauce to taste, and served with a sprinkle of grated Parmesan on it, with or without tomato sauce, or with stewed tomatoes, as preferred.

Of rice, the modes of cooking are endless, and yet few dishes are adopted here besides the well-known pudding with milk and sugar, with or without eggs; the moulds of boiled rice, variously treated, to be

eaten with fruit; and rice, rarely well prepared, for service with a curry. There is also no doubt the boiled fowl and rice, usually regarded as a convalescent's dish, and not rendered sufficiently interesting or attractive to merit the attention of others. As examples of nutritious, and at the same time very palatable savoury dishes, I will offer two examples; viz., the *risotto à la Milanaise*, and the *pilau* of the East: varieties of the latter are common among all the populations dwelling adjacent to the Mediterranean, from Spain to the Levant. A dish of boiled rice being in some sort the culinary analogue in the vegetable kingdom, of veal and poultry in the animal, furnishing an insipid but wholesome basis, is well fitted to be the vehicle for producing innumerable flavours and odours, and even colours, at the table; and is thus capable of furnishing various dishes, according to the treatment, and to the materials for addition, obtainable in different districts.

To make *risotto à la Milanaise* for two persons.—Put two ounces of fresh butter, with an onion chopped very fine, into a stewpan, and fry until the onion has a pale gold colour. Then add half a pound of well washed East India rice, with a very little powdered saffron, stirring it constantly for about two minutes with a wooden spoon, so that it does not stick to the stewpan; after this two minutes' cooking, add about a pint of good stock very gradually; let it simmer gently, stirring very frequently, till the rice is just soft; before it is quite finished, add a little grated

nutmeg and some grated Parmesan cheese; after this, boil for one minute; then remove it from the fire and set it on a hot plate, add a little more butter, cover for a few minutes, and serve. The quantity of stock or beef-tea can be varied according as the *risotto* is preferred thick or otherwise.

For a Turkish *pilau*, well wash six ounces of East India rice, and boil in a pint of water for eight or ten minutes at the most; throw into a colander that it may thoroughly drain. Then place it in a stewpan with an ounce of butter, salt and pepper to taste, stirring well, and adding by degrees about half-a-pint of good fowl broth. After about fifteen minutes or so it should be properly done, turning out with the grains separate. It is to be served perfectly hot. The foregoing is a true *pilau*, but additions may be made of portions of the meat of the fowl, or of other animal matter; of a little curry powder; of chutney; of fried onions, mushrooms, &c., &c.

Passing rapidly on without naming the ordinary and well-known service of cold meats, fresh and preserved, poultry and game, open or under paste, in some form, to be found in profusion on table or sideboard, and in which this country is unrivalled, a hint or two relating to some lighter cold *entrées* may be suggested. It is scarcely possible to treat these apart from the salad which, admirable by itself, also forms the natural garnish for cold dishes. A simple aspic jelly, little more than the *consommé* of yesterday flavoured with a little lemon-peel and tarragon vinegar,

furnishes another form of garnish, or a basis in which to present choice morsels in tempting forms, such as poultry livers, ox-palates, quenelles, fillets of game, chicken, wild fowl or fish, prawns, plover's eggs, &c., associated with a well-made salad. On this system an enterprising cook can furnish many changes of light but excellent nutritious dishes.

On salad so much has been written, that one might suppose, as of many other culinary productions, that to make a good one was the result of some difficult and complicated process, instead of being simple and easy to a degree. The materials must be secured fresh, are not to be too numerous and diverse, must be well cleansed and washed without handling, and all water removed as far as possible. It should be made by the hostess, or by some member of the family, immediately before the meal, and be kept cool until wanted. Very few servants can be trusted to execute the simple details involved in cross-cutting the lettuce, endive, or what not, but two or three times in a roomy salad bowl; in placing one salt-spoonful of salt and half that quantity of pepper in a tablespoon, which is to be filled three times consecutively with the best fresh olive oil, stirring each briskly until the condiments have been thoroughly mixed, and at the same time distributed over the salad. This is next to be tossed well, but lightly, until every portion glistens, scattering meantime a little finely chopped fresh tarragon and chervil, with a few atoms of chives over the whole. Lastly, but only immediately before serving,

one small table-spoonful of mild French or, better still, Italian wine-vinegar is to be sprinkled over all, followed by another tossing of the salad.* The uncooked tomato, itself the prince of salads, may be sliced and similarly treated for separate service, or added to the former, equally for taste and appearance. A tomato, however, should never be cut—it may have been previously trimmed a little—until the moment it is wanted for eating, as the juice and pulp of a ripe fruit drain away, and leave only its cellular framework, if it has been divided half an hour beforehand. Then, as much of the skin as can be easily removed, should be got rid of. Cold boiled asparagus served with a *mayonnaise* forms a dish of its kind not to be surpassed. At present ranking, when the quality is fine, as an expensive luxury, there is no reason why, with the improved methods of cultivating this delicious and wholesome vegetable, it should not be produced in great abundance, and for less than half its present price.† As to the manifold green stuffs which, changing with the season, may be presented as salad, their name is legion; and their choice must be left to the eater's judgment, fancy, and digestion, all of which of course vary greatly.

But there is another form of salad which is always available, and welcome, too, in any season of the

* A salad for five or six persons is supposed.

† On asparagus, and also on salad culture, see *The Parks and Gardens of Paris*, by W. Robinson, F.L.S., p. 468 et seq. 2nd ed. Macmillan, 1878.

year, viz., the salad of cold boiled table vegetables. An excellent basis may be made of cooked French beans, dressed as directed in the previous paragraph; for this purpose those preserved in tins may be used: greatly inferior as these are when served hot to the fresh *haricots verts*, they are very acceptable as salad in winter and early spring. The preserved green haricots (*flageolets*), similarly treated and added in equal proportion, with a garnish of sliced carrot, beet-root, or tomato, may be arranged not only as a most savoury and wholesome, but even as an elegant dish. Cold boiled potatoes,* carrots, turnips, broad beans, peas, cauliflower, and other greens, may all be employed thus: combined and garnished according to the maker's taste, which there is abundant opportunity for displaying. The dish may be made more substantial by the addition of small fillets of sole or trout, and its flavour may be heightened, if desired, by morsels of haddock, sardine, &c. Well known and appreciated as the *Salade de légumes*† always is at a Paris restau-

* The best variety of potato for the purpose is that known as *Vitelotte*.

SALAD OF COOKED VEGETABLES.

The French salad of cold cooked vegetables, *Salade de légumes*, referred to p. 79:

Take 4 oz. of carrots cut in squares of about a quarter of an inch; 3 oz. of turnips cut in the same way; 4 oz. of small green asparagus cut in pieces; 4 oz. of peas, 4 oz. of French beans cut in squares like the turnips and carrots. Boil each of these vegetables separately in about a quart of water, with a teaspoonful of salt; when cooked strain them on a cloth; let them cool, and then place the French beans

rant, most persons here would prefer the vegetables simply sliced, so as to preserve some of their natural form and texture, rather than cut into innumerable small cubes, as usually presented. In all cases, such salad should be kept very cool, and be dressed immediately before serving in warm weather.

at the bottom of a salad bowl. Arrange the other vegetables in little heaps around, first the carrots, then the peas, then the turnips, then the asparagus, so as to alternate the colours, and so on again. The rest of the peas and asparagus may be placed in the centre, and sprinkled with a spoonful of chopped ravigote (fresh tarragon, chervil, parsley, and chives). Serve with oil in vinegar apart.

CHAPTER VII.

The combination of dishes to form a meal—Three specific systems of arranging the daily meals—Characteristics of each meal—Breakfast—Lunch—Dinner of two kinds—Value of initial soup—Plan of dishes to follow—*Hors-d'œuvres.*

THE art of combining dishes to form a meal now demands our consideration. The occupations of man in a civilised state, no less than the natural suggestions of his appetite, require stated and regular times for feeding. But the number of these set apart in the twenty-four hours differs considerably among different peoples and classes. Taking a general view of the subject, it may be said that there are three principal systems to which all varieties of habit may be reduced. From an English point of view, these may be regarded as—

1. The Continental system of two meals a day.

2. The system of provincial life (Great Britain), or four meals.

3. The system of town life (ditto), or three meals.

1. In the Continental system, the slight refreshment served in the early morning, in the form of coffee or chocolate, with a rusk or a morsel of bread, does not amount to a meal. It is only a dish, and that

a light one, and not a combination of dishes, which is then taken. At or about noon a substantial meal, the déjeûner, is served; and at six or seven o'clock, an ample dinner. Such is the two-meal system, and it appears to answer well throughout the West and South of Europe.

2. What I have termed the provincial system consists of a substantial breakfast at eight or nine, a dinner at one or two, a light tea about five, and a supper at nine or ten. It is this which is popular throughout our own provincial districts, and also among middle-class society of our northern districts throughout both town and country. The habits also of the great German nation correspond more to this than to the first-named system.

3. The prevailing system of London, and of the numerous English families throughout the country whose habits are formed from partial residence in town, or by more or less intimate acquaintance with town life, is that of three meals daily. In general terms the breakfast takes place between eight and ten; the lunch from one to two; the dinner from half-past six to eight.

In all cases each meal has its own specific character. Thus, here, breakfast is the most irregular in its service, and least of all demands general and intimate coherence of the party assembled. Individual interests concerned in the letter-bag, in the morning news, in plans for the day, in cares of coming business, &c., are respected. Provision for acknowledged dietetic pecu-

liarities on the part of individuals is not forgotten, and everyone comes or goes as he pleases.

At lunch the assembly is still somewhat uncertain. Thus some members of the family are absent without remark; intimate friends may appear without special invitation; while those less intimate can be asked with small ceremony. Occupations of pleasure or of business still press for pursuit during the afternoon, and the meal for such may not be too substantial. It should suffice amply to support activity; it should never be so considerable as to impair it. Here may be just named an invention of comparatively recent date, afternoon tea; which, however, cannot be reckoned as a meal. In reality a pleasant excuse to mark the hour for friendly gossip with a hostess "at home," it may be the occasion of undesirable habits, if enough solid food is eaten to impair digestion and "spoil" the coming dinner. But *àpropos* of tea, many of us might with advantage avoid the sugar and the cream, which at this hour interfere with the stomach far more than does the infusion itself, and add in their place a delicate slice of lemon neither thicker nor larger than a halfcrown, the flavour of which—fragrant peel and a hint of acid—combines with the aroma of good tea, without in the least disguising or flattening it as the conventional additions do? It would be almost as rational to add cream and sugar to wine, as to fine and delicately flavoured tea! Occasionally tea is served with lemon in this country, but it is mostly added in excess. A

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very slight shaving, which contains both peel and pulp, is ample for an ordinary cup.

The last meal of the three, dinner, has characters wholly different from the preceding. The prime occupations of the day are over; the guests are known and numbered; the sentiment is one of reunion after the dispersion of the day—of relaxation after its labours, sports, or other active pleasures. Whatever economy of time may have been necessary in relation to the foregoing meals, all trace of hurry should disappear at dinner. A like feeling makes the supper of the "provincial" system a similarly easy and enjoyable meal. And all this is equally true of dinner, whether it unites the family only, or brings an addition of guests. General conversation: the events and personal incidents of the day, the current topics of the hour, are discussed in a light spirit, such as is compatible with proper attention to the dishes provided. All that follows late dinner should for the most part be amusement—it may be at the theatre, an evening party, or a quiet evening at home. There should be ample time, however, for every coming engagement, and security for some intervening rest for digestion. Dinner, then, is the only meal which—as the greater includes the less—need be discussed in the third part of our subject, which claims to treat of custom and art in combining dishes to form a repast. With the requirements and under the circumstances just specified, it should not be a heavy meal, but it should be sufficing. No one after dinner should feel complete

satiety or repletion, with a sense of repugnance at the idea of eating more; but all should still enjoy the conviction that a good meal furnishes delightful and refreshing occupation.

Dinners are of two kinds—the ordinary meal of the family, and the dinner to which guests are invited. There is a third dinner in this country, of common—too common — occurrence, viz., the public dinner, which is essentially a British institution, and cannot be passed by in silence.

The late dinner should never include children. It is a meal which is in every way unsuited to them; and they are quite unfitted to take part in its functions; besides, the four-meal system is better adapted to their requirements of growth and digestion in early life. A family dinner may usually consist of a soup, fish, *entrée*, roast and sweet; the *entrée* may even be omitted; on the other hand, if the meal is required to be more substantial, a joint may be served in addition after the fish; but this should be very rarely necessary. A special dish of vegetables may be advantageously placed before or after the roast, according to circumstances; and supplementary vegetables should be always at hand.

The *rationale* of the initial soup has often been discussed: some regard it as calculated to diminish digestive power, on the theory that so much fluid taken at first dilutes the gastric juices. But there appears to be no foundation for this belief: a clear soup, or the fluid constituents of a *purée*, disappear

almost immediately after entering the stomach, being absorbed by the proper vessels, and in no way interfere with the gastric juice which is stored in its appropriate cells ready for action. The habit of commencing dinner with soup has without doubt its origin in the fact that aliment in this fluid form—in fact, ready digested—soon enters the blood and rapidly refreshes the hungry man, who, after a considerable fast and much activity, sits down with a sense of exhaustion to commence his principal meal. In two or three minutes after taking a plate of good warm *consommé*, the feeling of exhaustion disappears, and irritability gives way to the gradually rising sense of good-fellowship with the circle. Some persons have the custom of allaying exhaustion with a glass of sherry before food—a gastronomic no less than a physiological blunder, injuring the stomach and depraving the palate. The soup introduces at once into the system a small instalment of ready-digested food, and saves the period of time which, in the absence of soup, must be spent by the stomach in deriving some portion of nutriment from solid aliment; and thus the organ of digestion itself is indirectly strengthened for its forthcoming duties. Few will be found to dispute the second place in order to fish, although this arrangement is in some quarters an open question: its discussion, however, can scarcely be regarded as within the limit of our space. The third dish should consist of the chief meat, the joint, if desired; if not, one of the smaller dishes of meat, such as fricandeau,

cutlets, filet, or sweetbread, before spoken of, well garnished, will be appropriate, and to many preferable. Next the well-roasted bird—of game or poultry—accompanied or followed by salad, and by a dish of choice vegetables. Then one light simple sweet, for those who take it, and a slight savoury biscuit, a grilled mushroom or a morsel of cheese completes the repast. Such a meal contains within its limits all that can be desired for daily enjoyment and use. If well and liberally served, it is complete in every sense of the word. Dessert and its extent is a matter of individual taste; of wines, coffee, and liqueurs I shall speak hereafter.

A word about *hors-d'œuvre*. It is well known that the custom exists to a very wide extent among Continental nations of commencing either midday déjeûner or dinner by eating small portions of cold pickled fish, of raw vegetables, of highly-flavoured sausage thinly sliced, &c., to serve, it is said, as a whet to appetite. This custom reaches its highest development in the *zakuska* of the Russian, which, consisting of numerous delicacies of the kind mentioned, is sometimes to be found occupying a table in an anteroom to be passed between the drawing-room and dining-room; or, and more commonly, spread on the sideboard of the latter. The Russian eats a little from three or four dishes at least, and "qualifies" with a glass of strong grain spirit (*vodka*) or of some liqueur before taking his place at the table. Among these savoury preliminaries may often be found caviare in its fresh state,

grey, pearly, succulent and delicate, of which most of the caviare found in this country is, speaking from personal experience of both, but as the shadow to the substance.

I have no hesitation in saying, after much consideration of the practice of thus commencing a meal, that it has no *raison d'être* for persons with healthy appetite and digestion. For them, both pickled food and spirit are undesirable, at any rate on an empty stomach. And the *hors-d'œuvre*, although attempts to transplant them here are often made, happily do not, as far as I have observed, thrive on our soil. They have been introduced here chiefly, I think, because their presence, being demanded by foreign gastronomic taste, is supposed to be therefore necessarily correct. But the active exercise and athletic habits of the Englishman, his activity of body and mind in commercial pursuits, all tend to bring him to the dinner-table wanting food rather than appetite, and in no mind to ask for "whets" to increase it. Among idle men, whose heavy lunch, liberally accompanied with wine and not followed by exercise, has barely disappeared from the stomach at the hour of dinner, a piquant prelude as stimulus of appetite is more appreciated. Hence the original invention of *hors-d'œuvre;* and their appearance in a very much slighter and more delicate form than that which has been described, still to be observed in connection with the chief repasts of the Latin races. The one plate which heralds dinner, indigenous to our country, is

also one of its own best products—the oyster. But this is scarcely a *hors-d'œuvre.* In itself a single service of exquisite quality, served with attendant graces of mild and delicate vinegar, brown bread and butter, and a glass of light chablis for those who take it, the half-dozen natives occupying the hollow shells, and bathed in their own liquor, hold rank of a very different kind to that of the miscellaneous assortment of tit-bits alluded to. Oysters are in fact the first dish of dinner and not its precursor; the first chapter, and not the advertisement. And this brings us to the dinner of invitation.

CHAPTER VIII.

Dinners of invitation—Two kinds—Small and select—Large—The old pretentious style—Scheme of a rational dinner-party—Priority in the service of various dishes—The half-hour after dinner—Turtle and fish dinners—Curry—Sketch for a small dinner.

And of this dinner there are two very distinct kinds. First, there is the little dinner of six or eight guests, carefully selected for their own specific qualities, and combined with judgment to obtain an harmonious and successful result. The ingredients of a small party, like the ingredients of a dish, must be well chosen to make it "complete." Such are the first conditions to be attained in order to achieve the highest perfection in dining. Secondly, there is the dinner of society, which is necessarily large; the number of guests varying from twelve to twenty-four.

The characteristics of the first dinner are—comfort, excellence, simplicity, and good taste. Those of the second are—the conventional standard of quality, some profusion of supply, suitable display in ornament and service.

It must be admitted that, with the large circle of acquaintances so commonly regarded as essential to existence in modern life, large dinners only enable us

to repay our dining debts, and exercise the hospitality which position demands. With a strong preference, then, for the little dinners, it must be admitted that the larger banquet is a necessary institution; and therefore we have only to consider now how to make the best of it.

No doubt the large dinner has greatly improved of late; but it has by no means universally arrived at perfection. Only a few years ago excellence in quality and good taste in cuisine were often sacrificed in the endeavour to make a profuse display. Hence, abundance without reason, and combinations without judgment, were found co-existing with complete indifference to comfort in the matters of draughts, ventilation, temperature, and consumption of time. Who among the diners-out of middle age has not encountered many a time an entertainment with some such programme as the following: one of an order which, it is to be feared, is not even yet quite extinct?

Eighteen or twenty guests enter a room adapted at most to a dinner of twelve. It is lighted with gas; the chief available space being occupied by the table, surrounding which is a narrow lane, barely sufficing for the circulation of the servants. Directly—perhaps after oysters—appear turtle soups, thick and clear. A *consommé* is to be had on demand, but so unexpected a choice astonishes the servitor, who brings it after some delay, and cold: with it punch. Following, arrive the fish—salmon and turbot, one or both, smothered in thick lobster sauce: sherry. Four

entrées promenade the circuit in single file, whereof the first was always oyster patties; after which came mutton or lamb cutlets, a vol-au-vent, &c.: hock and champagne. Three-quarters of an hour at least, perhaps an hour, having now elapsed, the saddle or haunch of mutton arrives, of which gentlemen who have patiently waited get satisfactory slices, and currant jelly, with cold vegetables or a heavy flabby salad. Then come boiled fowls and tongue, or a turkey with solid forcemeat; a slice of ham and so on, up to game, followed by hot substantial pudding, three or four other sweets, including an iced pudding; wines in variety, more or less appropriate; to be followed by a *pâté de foie gras*, more salad, biscuits and cheese. Again, two ices, and liqueurs. Then an array of decanters, and the first appearance of red wine; a prodigious dessert of all things in and out of season, and particularly those which are out of season, as being the more costly. General circulation of waiters, handing each dish in turn to everybody, under a running fire of negatives, a ceremonial of ten or fifteen minutes' duration, to say the least. Circulation of decanters, general rustle of silks, disappearance of the ladies; and first change of seat, precisely two hours and a half after originally taking it. It may be hoped that a charming companion on either side has beguiled and shortened a term which otherwise must have been felt a little long. Now the general closing up of men to host, and reassembling of decanters; age and quality of wine discussed,

recommendation of vintages. Coffee which is neither black nor hot. Joining the ladies; service of gunpowder tea, fatal to the coming night's rest if taken in a moment of forgetfulness; and carriages announced.

Admitted that such an exhibition is impossible now in any reasonable English circle, it nevertheless corresponds very closely in style with that of the public dinner; a state of things without excuse. And the large private dinner is still generally too long, the menu too pretentious. Let me, however, be permitted to record, equally in proof of growing taste and as grateful personal duty, how many admirable exceptions to the prevailing custom are now afforded. Then, of course, it must be understood, that while the dinner for six or eight persons is designed as an harmonious whole of few, well-chosen dishes, all of which are intended to be eaten in their order, the menu of the larger party must offer various dishes for choice to meet the differing tastes of more numerous guests, and it must therefore be larger. Let us see how this is to be met. First, the soups: it is the custom to offer a *consommé*, which ought to be perfect in clearness, colour, and savour, and to be served perfectly hot; containing a few vegetables, &c., variously treated—doubtless the best commencement, as it is the key-note of the dinner; revealing also, as it does, nine times out of ten, the calibre of the cook to whose talent the guest is entrusted. But there is mostly an alternative of "white soup," and

this is almost always a mistake. Many persons refuse it, and they are right, containing, as it generally does, a considerable proportion of cream—an injudicious beginning, when there is much variety to follow; excellent sometimes as one of three or four dishes, but dangerous otherwise to the guest who has not an exceptionally powerful digestion. But suppose oysters, vinegar, and chablis have just been swallowed! A brown *purée*, as of game, or one of green vegetable, less frequently met with, would be safer. Two fish, of course, should always be served; as, for example, a slice of Severn or Christchurch salmon, just arrived from the water, for its own sake, and a fillet of white fish for the sake of its sauce and garnish, which should be therefore perfect. The next dish is, in London, a question under discussion; viz., the question of precedence to an *entrée*, or to the *pièce de résistance*. The custom has been to postpone the appearance of the latter until lighter dishes have been despatched or declined. If, however, the English joint is required at a meal already comprehensive in the matter of dishes, and taken at a late hour, it seems more reasonable to serve it next to the fish, when those who demand a slice of meat may be expected to have an appropriate appetite, which will certainly be impaired, equally by accepting the *entrées*, or fasting partially without them. After the joint, two light *entrées* may follow, and these must necessarily be either in themselves peculiarly tempting morsels, or products of culinary skill, offering inducement to the

palate rather than to an appetite which is no longer keen. Then the best roast possible in season, and a salad; a first-rate vegetable, two choice sweets, one of which may be iced; a light savoury biscuit, a herring-roe on toast, or a morsel of fine barely salted caviare, which may be procured in one or two places at most in town, will complete the dinner. For dessert, the finest fruits in season to grace the table and for light amusement after; or simply nuts in variety, and dry biscuits; nothing between the two is tolerable, and little more than the latter is really wanted: only for decorative purposes fruit equals flowers. But it may be admitted that the diminished number of sweet *entremets* strengthens the plea for a supply of delicious fruits, rendering the dessert useful and agreeable as well as ornamental.

And now that dessert is over, let me say that I do not admit the charge sometimes intimated, although delicately, by foreigners, of a too obvious proclivity to self-indulgence on the part of Englishmen, in permitting the ladies to leave the table without escort to the drawing-room. The old custom of staying half an hour, or even an hour afterwards, to drink wine, which is doubtless a remnant of barbarism, has long been considered indefensible. Still, the separation of the party into two portions for fifteen or twenty minutes is useful to both, and leads perhaps more completely to a general mixture of elements on reunion after than is attained by the return of the original pairs together. Whether this be so or not,

the ladies have a short interval for the interchange of hearsays and ideas relative to matters chiefly concerning their special interests; while the men enjoy that indispensable finish to a good dinner, an irreproachable cup of coffee and a cigarette, and the sooner they arrive the better. With the small dinners of men it can scarcely too quickly follow the last service.

But marked by a special character are some dinners, which may be either small or large in relation to the number of guests, but which are necessarily limited as regards the variety of aliments served. I refer to dinners at which either turtle or fish predominates. In accordance with a principle already enunciated, a bowl of substantial stock, containing four or five broad flakes of the gelatinous product, often miscalled "fat," which is the chief representative of the turtle in the compound, is not a judicious prelude to a dinner arranged according to the orthodox programme, and offering the usual variety. A lover of turtle indulges freely in the soup, both thick and clear, making it in fact an important instalment of his repast; and he desires, with or without some slight interlude, to meet the favourite food again in the form of an *entrée*. After so substantial a commencement, the dinner should be completed chiefly by poultry, and game if in season, and for the most part by dishes which are grilled or roasted, in contrast to the succulent morsels which have preceded.

The fish dinner, also an occasional departure from

daily routine, is acceptable, and gratifies the taste for that delicate and pleasant food in considerable variety. But if so indulged, very few dishes ought to appear subsequently. It is a curious fact that the traditional bacon and beans, which appear towards the close of a Greenwich whitebait dinner, should afford another illustration of undesigned compliance with the natural law referred to at the outset, the bacon furnishing complementary fat to supply its notable absence in fish.

The enjoyment of a curry—and when skilfully made it is almost universally admitted to be one of the most attractive combinations which can be offered to the senses of taste and smell—is only possible at a limited repast. When freely eaten, very little is acceptable to the palate afterwards, exhausted as it is by the pervading fragrance of the spice and other adjuncts. Hence a curry should form the climax of a short series of dishes leading up to it: when presented, as it sometimes is, among the *entrées* of a first course, it is wholly out of place.

Here we may appropriately take a rapid glance at the characteristics of the feast where the guests are few in number.

The small dinner party should be seated at a round or oval table, large enough for personal comfort, small enough to admit of conversation in any direction without effort. The table should of course be furnished with taste, but is not to be encumbered with ornaments, floral or other, capable of obstructing sight

and sound. A perfect *consommé*, a choice of two fish, a *filet* or a châteaubriand, a *gigot* or a fricandeau: followed by a chaudfroid, a *crême de volaille garnie*, a roast and salad, a choice vegetable, and an iced *soufflé* or *charlotte;* and in summer a *macédoine* of fresh fruits in an old china family bowl, if there is one; and lastly, a savoury biscuit; accompanying vegetables and appropriate wines;—may be regarded as furnishing a scheme for such a party—or a theme of which the variations are endless.* Seven or eight guests can thus be brought into close contact; with a larger number the party is apt to form two coteries, one on each side of the host. The number is a good one also in relation to the commissariat department—eight persons being well supplied by an *entrée* in one dish; while two dishes are necessary for ten or twelve persons. Moreover, one bottle of wine divides well in eight; if, therefore, the host desire to give with the roast one glass of particularly fine ripe Corton or Pomard, a single bottle is equal to the supply; and so with any other choice specimen of which a single circulation is required; and of course the rule holds equally if the circuit is to be repeated.

And this leads us to the question—and an important one it is—of the Wine.

* For an illustration of this, see a series of *menus* at the end of Chapter X.

CHAPTER IX.

The question of wine with dinner—Should be pure but not pretentious—Relation of various kinds with certain dishes—Cigarettes after dinner—Tobacco and coffee—Common water—Aerated waters—Foreign mineral waters—Sweet drinks at dinner objectionable.

I HAVE already said that, among all civilised nations, wine in some form has for centuries been highly appreciated as a gastronomic accompaniment to food. I cannot, and do not attempt to deny it this position. Whether such employment of it is advantageous from a dietetic or physiological point of view is at this moment altogether another question. I am of opinion that the *habitual* use of wine, beer, or spirits is a dietetic error, say, for nineteen persons out of twenty. In other words, the great majority of the people, at any age or of either sex, will enjoy better health, both of body and mind, and will live longer, without any alcoholic drinks whatever, than with habitual indulgence in their use, even although such use be what is popularly understood as moderate. But I do not aver that any particular harm results from the habit of now and then enjoying a glass of really fine pure wine—and, rare as this is, I do not think

any other is worth consuming—just as one may occasionally enjoy a particularly choice dish; neither the one nor the other, perhaps, being sufficiently innocuous or digestible for frequent, much less for habitual use. Then I frankly admit that there are some persons—in the aggregate not a few—who may take small quantities of genuine light wine or beer with very little if any appreciable injury. For these persons such drinks may be put in the category of luxuries permissible within certain limits or conditions, and of such luxuries let tobacco-smoking be another example. No one probably is any better for tobacco; and some people are undoubtedly injured by it; while others find it absolutely poisonous, and cannot inhale even a small quantity of the smoke without instantly feeling sick or ill. And some few indulge the moderate use of tobacco all their lives without any evil effects, at all events, that are perceptible to themselves or to others.

Relative to these matters, every man ought to deal carefully and faithfully with himself, watching rigorously the effects of the smallest license on his mental and bodily states, and boldly denying himself the use of a luxurious habit if he finds undoubted signs of harm arising therefrom. And he must perform the difficult task with a profound conviction that his judgment is very prone to bias off the side of indulgence, since the luxurious habit is so agreeable, and to refrain therefrom in relation to himself and to the present opinion of society, so difficult. Be it remarked, however, that

the opinion of society is notably and rapidly changing relative to the point in question.

Having premised thus much as to what is absolutely best, I will now deal, in the spirit of compromise, with things as they are; and let it be understood that it is in this sense that I deal with the subject. I have only now to say, first, that wine, in relation to dinner, should be served during the repast; it should never be taken, in any form or under any circumstances, before, that is, on an empty stomach, and rarely after the meal is finished. Regarded from a gastronomic point of view alone, nothing should appear after fruit but a small glass of cognac or liqueur, and coffee. The post-prandial habit of drinking glass after glass even of the finest growths of the Gironde, or of the most mature or mellow shipments from Oporto, is doubtless a pleasant, but, in the end, for many persons a costly indulgence.

Secondly, whatever wine is given should be the most sound and unsophisticated of its kind which can be procured. The host had far better produce only a bottle or two of sound *bourgeois* wine from Bordeaux—and most excellent wine may be found under such a denomination—with no pretence of a meretricious title, or other worthless finery about it, than an array of fictitious mixtures with pretentious labels procured from an advertising cheap wine house. I could only speak in terms of contempt and disgust, did I not feel pity for the deluded victims, of the unscrupulous use of the time-honoured and historical

titles which advertisers shamelessly flaunt on bottles of worthless compounds by means of showy labels, in lists and pamphlets of portentous length, and by placards sown broadcast through the country. So that one may buy "Lafite" or "Margaux"—"Chambertin" or "Nuits"—'47 port, or even '34—at any village store! No terms can be too strong to characterise such trade.

If fine wines of unquestionable character and vintage are to be produced, there are only two ways of possessing them: one, by finding some wine-merchant of long standing and reputation, who will do an applicant the favour to furnish them, and the price must be large for quality and age. We may be certain that such an one will never advertise; no man who really has the *grands vins* of esteemed vintages in his cellar need spend a shilling in advertisements, for he confers a favour on his customer by parting with such stock. But better and more satisfactory is it to obtain from time to time a piece or two of wine, of high character and reputed vintage, when they are to be had, just fit to bottle, and lay them down for years until ripe for use. Commencing thus in early life, a man's cellar becomes in twenty or thirty years a possession of interest and value, and he can always produce, at his little dinners, for those who can appreciate it, something curiously fine, and free at all events from the deleterious qualities of new and fictitious wines.

Briefly: the rule, by general gastronomic consent,

for those who indulge in the luxury of wine, is to offer a glass of light pale sherry or dry Sauterne after soup; a delicate Rhine wine, if required, after fish; a glass of Bordeaux with the joint of mutton; the same, or champagne—dry, but with some true vinous character in it, and not the tasteless spirit and water just now enjoying an evanescent popularity—during the *entrées;* the best red wine in the cellar, Bordeaux or Burgundy, with the grouse or other roast game; and—but this ought to suffice, even for that exceptional individual who is supposed to be little if at all injured by "moderate" potations. With the ice or dessert, a glass of full-flavoured but matured champagne, or a liqueur, may be served; but at this point dietetic admonitions are out of place, and we have already sacrificed to luxury. The value of a cigarette at this moment is that with the first whiff of its fragrance the palate ceases to demand either food or wine. After smoke the power to appreciate good wine is lost, and no judicious host cares to open a fresh bottle from his best bin for the smoker, nor will the former be blamed by any man for a disinclination to do so.

For unquestionably tobacco is an ally of temperance; certainly it is so in the estimation of the gourmet. A relationship for him of the most perfect order is that which subsists between coffee and fragrant smoke. While wine and tobacco are antipathetic, the one affecting injuriously all that is grateful in the other, the aroma of coffee "marries" perfectly with the per-

fume of the finest leaf. Among the Mussulmans this relationship is recognised to the fullest extent; and also throughout the Continent the use of coffee, which is almost symbolical of temperate habits, is intimately associated with the cigarette or cigar. Only by the uncultured classes of Great Britain and of other northern nations, who appear to possess the most insensitive palates in Europe, have smoke and alcoholic drinks been closely associated. By such, tobacco and spirit have been sought chiefly as drugs, and are taken mainly for their effects on the nervous system—the easy but disastrous means of becoming stupid, besotted, or drunk. People of cultivated tastes, on the other hand, select their tobacco or their wines, not for their qualities as drugs, but for those subtler attributes of flavour and perfume, which exist often in inverse proportion to the injurious narcotic ingredients; which latter are as much as possible avoided, or are accepted chiefly for the sake of the former.

Before quitting the subject of dining it must be said that, after all, those who drink water with that meal probably enjoy food more than those who drink wine. They have generally better appetite and digestion, and they certainly preserve an appreciative palate longer than the wine-drinker. Water is so important an element to them, that they are not indifferent to its quality and source. As for the large class which cannot help itself in this matter, the importance of an ample supply of uncontaminated water

cannot be over-rated. The quality of that furnished to the population of London is happily now good, but the only mode of storing it possible to many often renders it dangerous to health. Disease and intemperance are largely produced by neglect in relation to these two matters. It would be invidious, perhaps, to say what particular question of home or foreign politics could be spared, that Parliament might discuss a matter of such pressing urgency as a pure water supply; or to specify what particular part of our enormous expenditure, compulsory and voluntary, might be better employed than at present, by diverting a portion to the attainment of that end. But for those who can afford to buy water, no purer exists in any natural sources than that of our own Malvern springs, and these are aërated and provided in the form of soda and potash waters of unexceptionable quality. Pure water, charged with gas, does not keep so long as a water to which a little soda or potash is added; but for this purpose six to eight grains in each bottle suffice—a larger quantity is undesirable. All the great makers of these beverages have now their own artesian wells or other equally trustworthy sources, so that English aërated waters are unrivalled in excellence. On the other hand, the foreign *siphon*, made, as it often is, at any chemist's shop, and from the water of the nearest source, is a very uncertain production. Probably our travelling fellow-countrymen owe their attacks of fever more to drinking water contaminated by sewage matter, than to the malarious

influences which pervade certain districts of southern Europe. The only water safe for the traveller to drink is a natural mineral water, and such is now always procurable throughout Europe, except in very remote or unfrequented places.* In the latter circumstances no admixture of wine or spirit counteracts the poison in tainted water, and makes it safe to drink, as people often delight to believe; but the simple process of boiling it renders it perfectly harmless; and this result is readily attained in any locality by making weak tea to be taken hot or cold; or in making toast-water, barley-water, lemonade, &c. The table waters now so largely imported into this country from Germany and France, contain a considerable proportion of mineral matter in solution, and while they are wholesome as regards freedom from organic impurities, are, of course, less perfect for daily use than absolutely pure waters, such as those above referred to. Vaunted frequently as possessing certain medicinal properties, this very fact ought to prohibit their constant use as dietetic agents for habitual consumption, inasmuch as we do not require drugs as diet, but only as occasional correctives. Among them, the natural Selters, Apollinaris, Gieshübel, and St. Galmier—but of this latter some of the sources are infe-

* Throughout France, St. Galmier; in Germany, Selters; in Austria and Bohemia, Gieshübel, are always obtainable, being the table-water of most repute, in each case respectively, of the country itself. In all chief places in Italy, either Selters or St. Galmier, often both, are supplied by the hotels. In Spain these are not at present to be had, but the alternatives recommended are easily obtained.

rior to others, the best appearing now to be chiefly retained for Paris—are perhaps among the most satisfactory within our reach. A dash of lemon-juice, and a thin cutting of the peel, form sometimes an agreeable addition, especially to our well-made soda, seltzer or potash waters; and nothing keeps the palate cleaner or in better order for appreciating food. I am compelled to say that the sweet compounds and fruity juices which have of late been produced, and inordinately puffed, as dinner drinks, and apparently in competition with wine, are rarely wholesome adjuncts to a dinner. Such liquids rapidly develop indigestible acid products in the stomachs of many persons; while for all, the sipping of sweet fluids, effervescing or otherwise, during a meal tends to diminish appetite, as well as the faculty of appreciating good cookery. If wine is refused, let the drink which accompanies dinner, be of pure water—with a sparkle of gas in it, or a slight acid in it if you will—but in obedience both to gastronomic and dietetic laws let it be free from sugar. No doubt there are exceptional circumstances in which fruity juices, if not very sweet, can be taken freely. Thus I have rarely quaffed more delicious liquor at dinner in the warm autumn of southern Europe, notably in Spain, than that afforded by ample slices of a water-melon, which fill the mouth with cool fragrant liquid; so slight is the amount of solid matter, that it only just serves to contain the abundant delicate juices of the fruit grown in those climates. Here the saccharine matter is nevertheless present only in small proportion.

CHAPTER X.

In order to arrange a dinner some practical acquaintance with food necessary—Also of the season at which it is in perfection—The scheme or elementary outline of a dinner—*Menus* should be written in French—Two *menus* for each month in the year—Numerous dishes not included in the list.

THE remark is frequently heard from the domestic head of an English family, the lady of the house—who, although in easy circumstances and much occupied in good society, does not care to delegate her authority to a skilled professional housekeeper—that nothing puzzles her more than the composition of menus for the inevitable dinner parties. She feels almost as ready, or rather as unready, as she would be if called upon to compose a sonnet or a symphony. Her husband, whose counsels are so valuable, or at all events are so promptly furnished on almost all other topics, utterly fails in his attempt to offer a suggestion now. Hence she meets her cook on terms which preclude exercise of choice or criticism; and the latter becomes mainly the author of the programme. But a leading confectioner and dinner purveyor may also be consulted, who supplies the suggestion desired, sending in a dish or two in consequence; and a suitable congruity is devoutly hoped for as the result.

At all events it is now certain that the *menu* will be sufficiently comprehensive; and there is even a probability that it will contain the latest invention—well, let us say—in gastronomic nomenclature; the novelty of the imported dish itself being perhaps less remarkable.

I venture then to offer a few hints relative to that particular form of literary composition which is involved in the so-called art of *menu* writing. Were it not that the art is really a very simple one, I should not risk the responsibility of offering advice. But it is necessary at the outset to state, that in order to ensure success in this particular department of letters, some little knowledge of the subject, namely, food, its nature and principal forms, is really necessary.

First then, the author of a *menu* must have a tolerable acquaintance with the varied materials, which form the natural produce of any given season throughout the year. Otherwise, we may meet with a proposal to serve Scotch salmon at Christmas, fine fresh tomatoes before Easter, oysters and grouse at Midsummer, asparagus at Michaelmas, and tender peas in November. I don't say that it is absolutely impossible to procure some of these things; more especially as the electric light may ultimately render us, for gardening purposes—and who knows for what else!—independent of sun and season. But at present most of those delicacies, like many others which might be named, are practically unattainable. To be serious, it is necessary that a housekeeper should know what

are the best products of the season, both of the animal and the vegetable world, in every month of the year. A pleasant stroll through Covent Garden once a week, and an occasional call on the fishmonger and poultryman, with frequent reference to some domestic manual of cookery, most of which contain a kind of *Almanach des Gourmands*, will soon furnish a competent acquaintance with what is really a very interesting branch of knowledge.

Next, it is necessary to have a simple but clear notion of the foundation or outline, the "archetype" pattern—if I may borrow a scientific term of rather lofty significance—on which every dinner, however great or however small, must be planned, as the groundwork of its construction. Certain primary elements are essential to the structure of a dinner; shorn of these there may without doubt be a meal, and indeed not a bad one of some kind; but there can be no dinner. Thus, a man may satisfy his hunger with a large plate of meat, piled with supplementary vegetables, and flanked by the attendant bread, and greatly enjoy his meal, but this is not dinner in any technical sense of the word, and cannot be so regarded; it is simply a plate of meat and vegetables. It offers no change in form, or kind, or flavour, and no slight interval of rest for the palate; it is a single movement, not a complete symphony—an "andante" in common time, but without the bright and sparkling "minuet" to follow, which in its turn leads to the "grand finale"; while this in its course

may present a plaintive minor passage, which gives force and splendour to the resumption of the major key before the close. Thus it is that certain constituent parts are necessary, one lending force to another by help of relief or contrast; the attainment of perfection through variety being as essential to the idea of a dinner, as to that of a complete musical composition. Bearing this law in view, and maintaining the characters demanded, we may produce a dinner of Spartan simplicity, or may swell it to proportions which should satisfy a Lucullus; but the archetype pattern is still to be discernible throughout.

A dinner to be complete within moderate limits should contain, in ideal terms,—

1. An introductory or preliminary dish or two.
2. A substantial dish of meat, or *pièce de résistance*, to satisfy a keen appetite. } Exchangeable for the following if desired:
3. A choice dish or two of delicate flavour for those who have little appetite for the preceding (or No. 2), as well as for those who have, but are able also to reserve a place for the gratification of taste. } Not absolutely essential; or may take the place of the substantial dish.
4. A dish of marked flavour and character easily digestible, inviting to the palate; a roast or grill.
5. A dish of choice vegetables by itself.
6. A sweet.
7. A savoury dish. } Not all absolutely essential.

Let the foregoing ideas be represented in a concrete form, either as simple, and applicable to one or two persons; or with additions of a luxurious kind, for the purpose of providing the variety necessary when there are several guests. It may be laid down as a self-evident axiom, that while two persons agreeing in their tastes may dine well on three, four, or at most five dishes, a larger number or choice of dishes must be provided to meet the differing tastes of six or eight persons, not one of whom individually will require more than the former. Thus:—

1. Introductory or Preliminary Dishes.	Soup or Fish.	Soup and Fish.	Soup and Choice of Fish.
2. Substantial Dish —*relevé* or *remove*.	Joint or other portion of meat; tender and juicy; not necessarily roast: to be well garnished, and attended with vegetables.		
3. Choice-Dishes; *entrées*.	An *entrée* of some kind; one of fish may come here if soup only were taken before the meat.	Two *entrées*—rarely more—simple or luxurious, according to the entertainment desired.	
4. A Dish of Marked Flavour—*the Roast*.	Almost always a bird; game when in season; attended or followed by a salad.		
The Entremets.			
5. Vegetable (which may sometimes precede, but will mostly follow, the roast).	The best in season carefully cooked, and served by itself.		

6. SWEET. . . .	One, or several, according to the guests.
7. SAVOURY. . .	Ranges from a morsel of cheese to the most perfect presentation of delicate fillets, &c. *en aspic*—"flies in amber"—that can be produced; one or more; or, caviare, dried fish, devilled biscuit.
DESSERT . . .	

The essentials then of a dinner reduced to its lowest term are:—

1. PRELIMINARY.	Soup only: or fish only, if soup disagrees, or is objected to. Both, if desired.
2 and 3. THE MEAT AND *entrée*.	Meat alone; or fish in its place, if soup only has been taken; or the *entrée* alone if lighter food than meat is preferred.
4. A ROAST. .	A roast bird of some kind.
5, 6, and 7. *Entremets.*	A vegetable; sweet, or savoury—one of each only, or two only, as preferred.

In order to illustrate the foregoing remarks, I shall now furnish a few examples of small but complete dinners; which are easily reducible, however, to the "lowest term," by the omission of a dish or two on the principle laid down. In each *menu* a choice of soups, fish, *entrées*, roast and sweet *entremets* are given: constituting in fact the *menus* of two dinners. Such a double *menu* is sketched from the materials most in season for each month in the year, making twenty-four dinners in all. I have ventured to do so because the suggestion has been so frequently made that practical

illustration of the principles advocated should be appended, and also because it appears possible that a few examples may, perhaps, be of some slight service to young or inexperienced persons, if any such there be. I wholly disclaim any idea of furnishing programmes here for elaborate dinners, or "state" occasions; and only intend to suggest simple products which any good or "thorough good" cook may furnish properly, at all events with a little preliminary practice in some instances. Perhaps the truth is scarcely yet sufficiently recognised that the quality or character of a dinner does not depend on the number, the complexity, the cost, or even on the rarity of the component dishes. Let these be few in number, and be simple in composition; but if the material itself is the best of its kind, well cooked and tastefully presented, the dinner may rank with the best, and is certain to please.

I have long been forced to the conclusion that *menus*, as a rule, should be written altogether in the French language. So many French culinary terms have been naturalised; so many more are almost if not quite untranslatable, that the endeavour to write *menus* in English, invariably results in an objectionable mixture of the two languages, resembling a mongrel patois. As examples, those of the first three months and those of the last month shall be written as far as possible in English, and the remainder will be given in French.

JANUARY.

SOUP.....	Brunoise.	Ox-tail.
FISH	Fillets of Sole à la Cardinal.	Crimped Cod and Oyster Sauce.
RELEVÉ or REMOVE	Roast Leg of Mutton, with purée of Onions and Haricots (à la Brétonne).	
ENTRÉE.....	Sweetbreads à la Financière.	Braised Ox-tongue and Spinach.
ROAST	Pheasant.	Snipe, or Widgeon.
ENTREMETS.	Seakale and Butter Sauce.	
	Iced Coffee, or Vanille Soufflé.	Brown Bread Pudding.
	Canapés of Anchovy.	

FEBRUARY.

SOUP	Paysanne.	Purée of White Haricots, or Lentils.
FISH	Fillets of Turbot à la ravigote.	Broiled Herring and Mustard Sauce.
RELEVÉ or REMOVE	Braised Veal and Macédoine of Vegetables.	
ENTRÉE.....	Croquettes of Oysters, or Scalloped Oysters.*	Mutton Cutlets à la Soubise.
ROAST	Wild Duck.	Hare.
ENTREMETS.	Stewed Celery in Gravy.	
	Apricots, Peaches, or Pears, with Rice.	Baba with Rum.
	Caviare.	

* Another mollusc, the true "scallop" (*Pecten maximus*), may be substituted for oysters as an entrée for occasional change in the spring season. It was formerly largely consumed, being originally cooked in the manner which is now commonly adopted for the oyster, when presented as above described. Long after the scallops, oysters came to be esteemed, and being cooked in the same way, were therefore said to be "scalloped." The original "scallops" may still be had at our fishmongers, and when thinly sliced and so dressed, are by no means to be altogether neglected.

MARCH.

Soup.....	Croûte au pot.	Purée of Turnips, or of artichokes.
Fish.....	Boiled Salmon, Sauce hollandaise with capers.	Red Mullets, baked; see p. 87.
Relevé or Remove	Broiled Steak from the fillet, Maître d'Hôtel Sauce.	
Entrée.....	Quenelles of Rabbit, purée of Celery.	Timbale of Macaroni à la Milanaise.
Roast	Guinea Fowl, with Cress or young Salad.	Capon, stuffed with fresh truffles.*
Entremets.	Stewed Mushrooms.	Young Salad.
	"Spring Tart."	Charlotte Russe, with pistachios.
	Herring, or Herring Roe, on Toast.	

APRIL.

Potage.....	Printanier.	Consommé au Riz, à l'Italienne.
Poisson.....	Truite grillée à la Hollandaise.	Éperlans frits.
Relevé.....	Aloyau braisé à la Nivernaise.	Filet de Porc, Sauce Robert.
Entrée.....	Jambon glacé aux Épinards, ou à la Chicorée.	Pieds de Mouton à la poulette.
Rôt	Poulet et Salade.	Canetons.
Entremets.	Asperges d'Argenteuil.	
	Bavaroise au Chocolat.	Crème au Caramel.
	Petits Soufflés au fromage.	

* Fresh French truffles are in perfection in January, to which fruitful month of all good things this dish might well be relegated; but are still in season through February and March. Fair English truffles, notably inferior, however, to the French black truffle, may be found in Covent Garden a month later.

MAY.

POTAGE.....	Bonne Femme.	Crécy.
POISSON ...	Filets de Maquereau grillés, Maître d'Hôtel.	Sole à la Colbert.
RELEVÉ.....	Selle d'Agneau braisée,	Macédoine de Légumes.
ENTRÉE.....	Pain de Volaille aux truffes.	Tête de Veau en tortue.
RÔT	Cailles.	Levraut.
ENTREMETS.	Carottes à l'Allemande.	Petits pois à la Flamande.
	Crème frite aux amandes amères.	Croquante d'Oranges.
	Œufs de Pluvier.	Canapés de Crevettes.

JUNE.

POTAGE.....	Pot-au-feu.	Bisque d'écrevisses.*
POISSON.....	Saumon de la Severn tailladé, Sauce au fenouil.	Raie au Beurre Noir, ou Sauce aux Câpres.
RELEVÉ.....	Fricandeau de Veau à l'Oseille.	
ENTRÉE.....	Chaudfroid de Cailles.	Poulet à la Marengo.
RÔT	Canards aux petits pois.	Pigeons, Salade.
ENTREMETS.	Asperges froides en Salade.	Petits pois à la Française.
	Purée de Groseilles glacée.	Nougat à la Crème.
	Croûtes au Parmesan.	

* A *bisque* is understood to be a well-flavoured and garnished *purée* of crayfish, as above ; but the same treatment of prawns, of lobster, and also of crab, produces excellent *bisques*. Some apply the term to certain *purées* of game, at the risk, perhaps, of rendering the meaning of the word uncertain.

JULY.

POTAGE.....	Purée de Pois (St. Germain).	Purée de Pommes de terre aux poireaux.
POISSON ...	Flondres Frites.	Aigrefin farcie au four.
RELEVÉ.....	Épaule d'Agneau à la purée d'Artichauts.	
ENTRÉE	Bouchées à la Reine.	Poulet à l'Estragon.
RÔT	Chevreuil.	Pluviers.
ENTREMETS.	Salade aux Tomates.	Haricots verts, ou panachés, sautés au beurre.
	Gelée au Kirsch, garnie de Cerises.	Bavaroise aux fraises.
	Petits Filets de Saumon au Diable.	

AUGUST.

POTAGE.....	Purée de Chicorée, ou d'Épinards.	Consommé au Macaroni, ou au Vermicelle.
POISSON ...	Sole Frite, citron ; ou Sauce verte.	Barbue, Sauce aux Crevettes.
RELEVÉ.....	Poitrine de Mouton à la Chicorée.*	
ENTRÉE ...	Filets de Caneton à la Bigarade.	Quenelles de Veau aux petits pois.
RÔT	Dindonneau.	Coq de Bruyère.
ENTREMETS.	Fèves de Marais à la Poulette.	Salade de Légumes.
	Macédoine de Fruits.	Crème aux framboises
	"Dressed Crab."	

* An excellent dish, first braised, then cooled ; finished with bread crumbs in the oven, *or* on the gridiron, and garnished with a *purée* of endive, or of spinach, or with tomatoes. The trimmed neck similarly treated makes a more substantial *remove*.

SEPTEMBER.

POTAGE.....	Crème d'Orge à la Hollandaise.*	Julienne.
POISSON ...	Aigrefin† grillée à la ravigote.	Sole à la Normande.
RELEVÉ.....	Haricot de Chevreuil.	"Beefsteak Pudding" à l'Anglaise.
ENTRÉE.....	Filets de Poulet aux Truffes, Sauce Suprème.	Blanquette de Ris d'Agneau à la Toulouse.
RÔT	Sarcelles.	Perdreaux.
ENTREMETS.	Chou-fleur au Gratin.	
	Charlotte aux pommes.	Omelette Soufflée.
	Champignons Grillés.	

OCTOBER.

POTAGE.....	Purée de Volaille (à la Reine).	Purée de Tomates.
POISSON ...	Filets de Barbue Frits.	Dorée, Sauce aux huîtres.
RELEVÉ.....	Filet de Bœuf à la Milanaise.	
ENTRÉE.....	Civet de Lièvre.	Fricassée de Poulet.
RÔT	Faisan.	"Black Game.
ENTREMETS.	Artichauts au Beurre.	
	Omelette au confiture.	Beignets de pommes, &c.
	Canapés de Jambon, ou de Homard.	

* The distinctive and agreeable addition, besides the little *quenelles* of fowl, in this soup, is the handful of sorrel leaves, which are still in season during this month.

† "Merluche" is generally used in this country to denote "haddock," but the French word merely designates any dried fish. "Aigrefin" or "aiglefin" is the true equivalent for haddock.

NOVEMBER.

POTAGE.....	Purée de Gibier.	Soupe aux Choux.
POISSON ...	Sole Bouillie, Sauce aux huîtres.	Merlan grillé, Sauce aux Câpres.
RELEVÉ.....	Selle de Mouton Rôtie, "Laver."*	
ENTRÉE.....	Faisan bouilli, à la purée de Céleri.	Salmi de Perdreaux.
RÔT	Bécasses ou Bécassines.	Oie.
ENTREMETS.	Foie Gras en Aspic, Salade Macédoine.	Pommes de Terre Sautées au Beurre.
	Savarin.	Meringues à la Crème.
	Petites Coquilles de Macaroni au Gratin.	

DECEMBER.

(*Christmas Dinners.*)

SOUP	Consommé, with Italian pastes.	Oyster.
FISH	Turbot, Hollandaise Sauce with capers.	Eels and Tartare Sauce.
RELEVÉ or REMOVE	Turkey stuffed with Chestnuts. Fillet of Beef, Horse-radish Sauce.	
ENTRÉE.....	Quenelles of Fowl, Sauce with Truffles.	Westphalian Goose Breast with Winter Spinach.
ROAST	Game in Season.	
ENTREMETS.	Spinach in gravy.	Potato Salad.
	Plum Pudding, Brandy Sauce.	Mince Pies. Chartreuse of Oranges.
	Welsh Rarebit.	Devilled Biscuit.

* Laver is in season from October to March; and consists of two native marine plants, *Porphyra vulgaris*, and *Ulva latissima*. It is unknown in France, and recognised in few of our own cookery books. A most excellent adjunct to roast mutton. Let it soak in two fresh waters, about an hour in each, to get rid of the salt; then put it in a saucepan with some hot water, and simmer until quite soft and mucilaginous; dress it as spinach, with butter, or with a little stock, and a dash of lemon juice; serve hot.

On looking through the foregoing *menus*, it may be observed that the most substantial dish has been placed next after the fish, and that it is followed by the *entrée*, after which comes the "roast," which in its turn is followed by the choice vegetable served apart. Those who prefer the *entrée* before the substantial dish, can so arrange it; but whenever the latter happens to be roasted, as may sometimes be the case, it interferes most undesirably, by juxtaposition with the "roast" proper. This error may then be to some extent corrected by placing the choice vegetable between the two, *i.e.* before the roast proper instead of after it; and this course should be taken whenever the first-named change is made.

In all cases too, there should be a marked difference in the material and culinary treatment of any two consecutive dishes; thus it is obviously undesirable that one white (or brown) preparation should follow another; a *quenelle* of veal, for example, after a boiled sole; or that a *salmi* of game should precede a roast pullet. It may be observed that white and brown meats and sauces mostly alternate, that grills and braises contrast; that a delicate white *entrée* successfully introduces the roast, that when the latter is substantial, as a haunch of venison, or a saddle of mutton, the preceding *entrée* may be less important; and so on. As a rule, to which there are a few exceptions, the procession of dishes after the fish is from the substantial to the more delicate, then to the contrasts between more piquant flavour and sweetness.

It should also be noted that numerous popular dishes have been omitted—and purposely so—from these *menus*, simply for the reason that they are well known, and can therefore be adopted at pleasure by way of addition or exchange. Thus, none of the joints, such as sirloins, rounds, haunches, saddles, loins, shoulders, &c., have been named, with perhaps a single exception only. Everybody is familiar with English joints, which have been on this account excluded from a list necessarily so restricted as the limits of only twenty-four *menus* demand. For the same reason I have not named turtle in any form, nor curries; nor such special soups as mock-turtle, mulligatawny, hodge-podge, split-pea,* giblet, water-souchets, and fish soups; nor whitebait, nor the fresh-water fish, carp, tench, dace, pike, &c.; nor among sweets, tarts, ices, sorbets, and the farinaceous puddings, custards, &c.; nor have I named the preliminary oysters, which may well be added during the season as an additional luxury. My object has been to suggest a few of the leading smaller dishes of a comparatively simple and not expensive kind, and to place them in proper juxtaposition in relation to each other, so far as this has been possible, with the view of suggesting some little diversity in the dietary of our better middle-class tables. Almost every one also

* Our common split-pea soup, wholesome and agreeable in winter, with dried mint and tiny croûtons, is wholly unknown in France; the dried green peas, termed *pois cassés*, only are used for similar purposes there.

is more or less typical in its character, so that given the knowledge of preparing it, several minor varieties can be produced. At the same time, such dishes are unpretentious, and do not demand the skill of a rare expert; yet, when really well executed, they offer results not to be surpassed by any, either in relation to refined tastes, nor in wholesome and nourishing qualities, in relation to the powers of the stomach and the wants of the system. To the remark regarding an estimate of the expense just made, I admit two or, at most, three exceptions, of which the *chapon truffé* is the most obvious example. And it is not suggested, moreover, that this should be prepared at home, but obtained only during the season of fresh truffles, from France; stuffed on its native soil with native produce, it forms a very important addition to a dinner, and stamps it with a rare distinction. There is no difficulty in procuring truffled poultry of any size by rail direct from Paris, when the indulgence of a little extravagance is to be permitted; but even this trouble is not necessary, since a few first-rate London poulterers import fresh truffles, and will furnish a fine Dorking fowl properly stuffed, the quantity used determining in any case the cost of the dish.*

* No better names could be mentioned than those of Chevet, of the Palais Royal, and Bailey, of Mount Street, Grosvenor Square.

CHAPTER XI.

The public dinner—Its undue length—Toasts too numerous—Suggestions for shortening the proceedings—Good cookery independent of pedantic and complicated receipts—Schools of cookery—Better food, in better condition, and in more abundant supply, a pressing want for London—Conclusion.

BEFORE concluding, a remark or two may be permitted in reference to that great British institution, the public dinner. Its utility must, I suppose, be conceded, since for a vast number of charitable and other interests the condition of commanding once a year the ear of the British public for an exposition of their claims, seems in no other way at present attainable. A royal or noble chairman, a portentous *menu*, an unstinted supply of wine, such as it is, and after-dinner speeches in variety, form an *ensemble* which appears to be attractive to the great body of "supporters." On the other hand, those whose presence is enforced by the claim of duty find these banquets too numerous and too long. The noise and bustle, the badly served although pretentious dinner, the glare of gas and the polluted air, the long, desultory and unmeaning speeches, interspersed with musical performances—which, however admirable in themselves,

extend unduly a programme already too comprehensive—unfit many a man, seriously occupied, for the engagements of the morrow. Might it not be worth trying the experiment of offering fewer dishes, better service, and abolishing half the toasts? Might it not be possible to limit the necessary and essential toasts of a public dinner to the number of three or four—these to be followed only by a few subordinate toasts associated with the the minor interests of the special object of the dinner? With the utmost deference to long received usage, and after some little consideration I venture to suggest that the following programme would at all events be an improvement on the present system, if such it can be called.

The first toast, or toasts, by which we declare our fidelity to the Crown, and our loyalty to the person of the Sovereign, as well as to the Royal family, to remain, by universal consent, as before. The next, or patriotic toasts, unlike the preceding, are regarded as demanding response, often from several persons, and here it is that time is generally wasted. These might therefore be advantageously compressed into one, which need not be limited to the military and naval services, although it would of course include them. The object might be attained by constituting a single comprehensive but truly patriotic toast as second on the list, viz., "Our great National Institutions," which are easily defined. Supposing them to be regarded as seven in number, a response might be made on behalf of one, or at most two, according to the speakers pre-

sent and the nature of the special object. These institutions fall naturally into order, as—(1) Parliament: its leaders. (2) Justice: the judges. (3) The military and naval forces: their officers. (4) Education: heads of universities and public schools. (5) Religion: its ministers. (6) Science and Art: heads of societies, academies, colleges. (7) Literature and the Press: distinguished writers.

The third to be "the toast of the evening:" in other words, the particular subject of the dinner. After this might follow a fourth, embracing the healths of officers connected with the subject, visitors, &c., if necessary.

I confess I see no reason why the military and naval forces, however profound our respect and our gratitude for their great services to the nation must be—and in this matter I yield to no man—should invariably occupy a toast and speech, to be responded to by at least two, often by three officers, while the other great, and scarcely less important interests should be left out of consideration altogether, or be only occasionally introduced. The toast of "National Institutions" would mostly insure to the chairman and managers of the dinner an opportunity of obtaining two good speakers from different interests in reply—say, one for Justice and the other for Religion; one for Parliament or the Services, and the other for Science or Literature, and so forth. Thus all the varied elements of our national life would receive in their turn a due share of attention from the great mass of public diners,

and better speeches would probably be secured than by the present mode.

I confess this is rather an episode; but the subject of "toasts" is so interwoven with the management of the public dinner that I have ventured to introduce it. I even dare to think that the proposition may be not unlikely to receive the support of "the chair," the duties of which, with a long array of toasts, are sometimes excessively onerous; only more so, be it recollected, in degree than those, of a humbler kind, which are entailed on many of the guests who are compelled to assist.

In concluding this imperfect sketch of the very large subject indicated by the title employed, I desire to express my strong sense of its manifold shortcomings, especially by way of omission. Desiring to call attention, in the smallest possible compass, to a great number of what appear to me to be important considerations in connection with the arts of selecting, preparing, and serving food, I have doubtless often failed to be explicit in the effort to be brief. It would have been an easier task were time at my disposal to illustrate these considerations at greater length, and to have exceeded the limits of this small volume; I might thus perhaps also have avoided, in dealing with some topics, a tone in statement more positive than circumstances may have warranted. Gastronomic tastes necessarily differ, as races, habits, digestive force, and supplies of food also differ; and it becomes no man to be too dogmatic in treating of these matters.

De gustibus non est disputandum is in no instance more true than in relation to the tastes of the palate. Still, if any rational canons are to be laid down in connection with food and feeding, it is absolutely necessary that something more than the chemical and physiological bearings of the subject should be taken into consideration. With these it is unquestionably essential for any one who treats of my subject to be familiar; but no less necessary is it to possess some natural taste and experience in the cultivation of the gustatory sense; just as a cultivation of the perception of colour and a sensibility to the charm of harmoniously combined tints, are necessary to an intelligent enjoyment of the visual sense, and to the understanding of its powers. Hence the treatment of the whole subject must inevitably be pervaded to some extent by the personal idiosyncrasy and predilections of the individual. It is this fact, no doubt, which, operating in relation to the numerous writers on cookery, has tended to produce some of the complication and confusion which often appears in culinary directions and receipts. But the gastronomic art is a simpler one than the effusions of some of its professors might lead the wholly uneducated to believe; and the complicated productions originated by some of its past and greatest practitioners are as unnecessary as are the long and complicated prescriptions formerly in vogue with the leading physicians of past time. Both were the natural out-growths of an age when every branch of technical education was a "mystery;" and

when those who had attained the meaning thereof magnified their craft in the eyes of the vulgar by obscuring what is simple in a cloud of pedantic terms and processes. But that age and its delusions are passing away, and it is high time for simplicity in the practice of cookery to take the place of some useless and extravagant combinations and treatment which tradition has handed down.

The formation of elementary schools of cookery, and the encouragement they have received from the public, augur well for improvement. No doubt the standard of attainment is low, and a certain commonplace uniformity in product will pervade the country as the result. Once make cookery a distinct business to which the young may be trained, which it never yet has been, and the chance of now and then producing a first-rate cook, who may advance the art, is within reach. Hitherto the practice of cookery has been merely a resource for wage-getting among ignorant women, who took to it at hazard, and acquired such traditions as pertained to the kitchen they have happened to enter. Still further, until it is recognised in this country as a profession which a man with some slight education and natural taste can exercise, we must be content to rank below other countries in rearing artists of the first order.

At the present day it appears desirable, before all things, to secure the highest quality in all produce of the land whether animal or vegetable; the standard of attainment leaving much to be desired in regard

of the products of the latter kingdom. Great Britain has long held, and still maintains, the first place as to quality for her beef and mutton; in no other country in Europe—I cannot speak of America—is it possible to obtain these meats so tender, juicy, and well-developed. The saddle, the haunch, the sirloin, and the round, so admirable on occasions, are only in danger of suffering here, like intimate friends, from a too great familiarity with their charms. But even our standard of quality in meat has been gradually lowered, from the closer struggle, year by year, to produce a fat animal in a shorter space of time than formerly; a result which is accomplished by commencing to feed almost exclusively on oil-cake at a very early period of life. The result of this process is, that size and weight are attained by a deposit of fat, rather than by the construction of muscular fibre, which alone is true meat; while as a necessary consequence the characteristic flavour and qualities of fully developed beef and mutton are greatly wanting in modern meat.

Much more unsatisfactory is the supply of vegetable and dairy produce to our great city, particularly of the former. It must be confessed that our market at Covent Garden, in relation to capabilities for effective distribution of fresh vegetables, &c., would disgrace a town one-fifth of the size of London. Nineteen-twentieths of its inhabitants cannot obtain fresh green food on any terms, and those who succeed pay an exorbitant price. But their success is only partial,

as those few who have a country garden of their own, and are supplied by it, well know. And, comparatively speaking, none but those who are so happily circumstanced, realize the exceeding luxury of possessing well-grown vegetables brought directly from the garden to the table. Again, I think I am right in saying that a really new-laid egg is a luxury which a millionaire can scarcely insure by purchase; he may keep fowls, and with due care may obtain it, not otherwise. The great staple of our bread, commonly called "bakers' bread," is unpalatable and indigestible; and I suppose no thoughtful or prudent consumer would, unless compelled, eat it habitually—used as it nevertheless is by the great majority of the inhabitants of this great city—any more than he would select a steak from the coarse beef whose proper destination is the stock-pot. Let any one compare the facilities which exist in most foreign towns for obtaining the three important articles of diet just named, with the modes of supply afforded by London, and the inferiority of the latter will be so manifest as to become matter of humiliation to an Englishman. I do not raise any question of comparison between our own markets and the Halles Centrales of Paris, covering as they do nearly five acres of closely utilised space, with enormous vaults beneath, in direct communication by tram-road with the railways; nor of the well-stocked Marché St. Honoré, and others of less note. To many among the thousands of tourists who frequent the public

buildings of Paris, an early morning survey of the fish, flesh, dairy produce, vegetables, fruit, and flowers which the Halles Centrales display, and the scarcely less remarkable exhibition of Parisian and provincial life brought together there, present one of the most interesting and truly foreign spectacles which the city affords.

To the long list of needed reforms I have ventured to advocate in connection with this subject, I must add the want of ample and accessible markets in various parts of London, for what is known as country produce. I do this not only in the interest of the millions who, like myself, are compelled to seek their food within the limits of Cockayne; but also in the interest of our country gardeners and housewives, who ought to be able to supply us with poultry, vegetables, and eggs, better than the gardeners and housewives of France, on whom at present we so largely depend. We may well be grateful to these small cultivators, who by their industry and energy supply our deficiencies; but the fact that they do so does not redound to the credit of our countrymen.

Have I claimed for the consideration of my subject too great a share in the thoughts and multifarious labours of busy men? I think not. For myself, being not without serious occupations, an attentive study of it has agreeably occupied many leisure hours at home and abroad; but it has furthermore performed good service in the interest of health. And if I have been rightly understood, this imperfect attempt to

popularise a few undoubted truths in relation to the selection, the cookery, and the service of food, will be regarded as a manifesto, which assuredly it is intended to be, on behalf of true temperance.

In one word let me conclude:—if in professional life for some of us, the chief power lies in a skilled right hand, and in the temperament which pertains thereto, it is no less true that a practical acquaintance with the laws of diet and digestion is also a power not far inferior to the other in importance.

My last word, then, no less than my first, shall testify to the value for all men of some knowledge in relation to their Food and Feeding.

APPENDIX.

PART I.

ON THE POT-AU-FEU.

Pot-au-feu: Jules Gouffé's instructions for making it—Directions given by Brillat-Savarin—The receipt of Alexandre Dumas.

Jules Gouffé's instructions for the *Pot-au-feu*, referred to, page 74.

"The broth (*bouillon*) of beef is the foundation of domestic cookery.

"It constitutes the most essential and really nourishing part of our daily food, that is, good meat soup. It is, moreover, the basis of a large number of culinary preparations such as ragoûts, sauces, *purées*, &c.

"The chief of all broths is undeniably beef-broth, many others, of course, existing, such as those of fowl, vegetables, fish, and game.

"The production of a good *pot-au-feu* seems to me to be one of those operations, at the same time elementary and fundamental, with which it is of the highest importance to render everyone familiar, as soon as domestic cooking is treated of.

"I shall not refrain from entering into the most minute details, even though it bring a smile to the face of those who take no heed of that which forms the first step in cooking. What I attach most importance to is, to enable even a person who approaches a range for the first time in his life, to make quite sure of succeeding, if my instructions are followed precisely.

"*The Pot.*

"Four different kinds of pot are employed in domestic cookery:—

1. A cast-iron pot.
2. An earthenware pot.
3. A tinned iron pot.
4. A copper pot.

"I object strongly to the first two kinds; to a cast-iron pot, because it is very difficult, if not impossible, to remove the grease, which, after a certain time, becomes engrained in the pores of the cast-iron. I object equally to the earthenware pot, which enjoys a reputation among certain housewives so little warranted. So far from improving the broth, it spoils it in every way. When new it preserves for a long time a taste of earth and varnish, of which hot water can never altogether deprive it; when old, it acquires a taste of rancid fat, which no amount of washing can destroy. On the other hand I specially recommend pots, of tinned iron or copper, as they are easily washed, and

as it is quite impossible to make a good broth unless the vessel is absolutely clean.

"*The Ingredients of the Pot-au-Feu.*

"I make a distinction between the big and the small *pot-au-feu*, the latter being for use on ordinary occasions, the former on extraordinary occasions. The small *pot-au-feu* consists of:—

1 lb. 10 oz. of meat (750 grammes).
Nearly 5 oz. of bones (125 grammes), (which is about the quantity of bones usually sold with the meat).
7 pints of water (4 litres).
1 oz. of salt (30 grammes).
5½ oz. of carrots (150 grammes).
5½ oz. of onions („ „).
7 oz. of leeks (200 grammes).
Nearly ½ oz. of celery (10 grammes).
1 clove—stuck in an onion.
5½ oz. of turnips.
Nearly an ounce of parsnips (25 grammes).*

"Some people add to the *pot-au-feu* a little garlic, but I do not recommend it—the flavour of garlic, which is always so pronounced, tends to destroy the aroma of the broth, and further, it renders it unfit for the use of invalids.

"For the extra *pot-au-feu*, double the quantity of

* The quantity of parsnip is curiously small. If wanted, and it certainly is a desirable addition, why not treble the weight?

meat and vegetables, but use only ten and a half pints of water in the place of seven. Perhaps it will be asked if the small *pot-au-feu* (that which I purposely call 'small'), will answer the requirements of a small household in which the cookery is necessarily reduced within narrow limits. I do not for a moment overlook the necessities even of the smallest households. The small *pot-au-feu* furnishes a quantity of broth for four or five persons. But if the household consists of only two persons, it may be considered usual to make soup enough to last for two days. Besides, it is convenient to keep some in reserve as a sauce for a made dish.

"*The Meat.*

"The portions of beef adapted for the *pot-au-feu* are the thick portions of the leg and shoulder; the lower parts (knee and below) are inferior, as consisting chiefly of bone, skin, and tendon. On the whole, perhaps, the leg is superior to the shoulder for the purpose. All meat employed should be as fresh as possible.

"*Mode of proceeding for the Pot-au-feu.*

"In the first place care must be taken to have a well-made fire which will last without much addition of coal, and will supply a constant gentle heat. The cover of the pot should be left slightly open, as broth becomes cloudy in a closed vessel.

"Next proceed as follows:—

"Separate the meat from the bones, tying up the

former to keep it in form for serving afterwards, and chopping the bones into morsels. First put the bones in the pot and the meat upon them. Pour in the water cold, and place the pot on the fire. Add the salt. Make it boil, and as soon as the scum rises, pour in a little cold water. Skim with a perforated spoon. Let it boil three separate times, and skim each time, after which the broth should be sufficiently skimmed. Wipe carefully the edges of the pot. Next add the vegetables named above, which will check the boiling for a minute; as soon as it begins again, place the pot on the corner of the fire, or hot plate, letting it only simmer gently, five hours for the big, and three hours for the small *pot-au-feu*. It is essential that the simmering should be quite regular and continuous. When the broth is made, take out the meat and put it on a dish; taste the broth and see if it is salt enough. If more salt is wanted, it should not be added till the broth has been put in the soup-tureen. Care should be taken not to salt the broth too highly at first, as it always becomes more salt on being warmed up the second day, and still more so when reduced to a sauce.

"Another essential point is to free the broth perfectly from grease, after the meat is taken out, the pot being still on the fire.

"*Observations on the Vegetables for the Pot-au-feu.*

"The vegetables should be left in the broth only just long enough to cook them. By this time they have

given their flavour to the broth, after which they would only rob it of its goodness.

"It is generally considered, and justly so, that the broth should have a golden tint; the flavour is not improved thereby, but the eye is satisfied. Yet care must be taken not to alter the flavour; therefore if any colouring matter is used, it should be caramel, while fried onion, fried carrot, and similar substances should be avoided for the reason given." *

The same principle is laid down by Brillat-Savarin. "By a *pot-au-feu* we understand a portion of beef destined to be treated in boiling water lightly salted so as to extract the soluble parts.

"The *bouillon* is the liquid which remains when the process is completed.

"The *bouilli* is the flesh deprived of its soluble parts.

"The water dissolves, first, a part of the osmazome; then the albumen, which coagulates by heat, some of it forming the scum which is removed; then more osmazome and extractive matter or gravy; finally, some portions of the sheath of the muscular fibres, which are detached in boiling.

"To make good *bouillon*, the water must boil very gently, &c. Some vegetables are to be added to heighten the flavour; and bread or pastes to render it more nourishing; and then it becomes a soup." †

* J. Gouffé: *Le Livre de la Cuisine.* Paris. 1867. Pp. 39–47.

† *Physiologie du Goût.* Brillat-Savarin. Paris, 1843. Pp. 28–9.

Dumas's Receipt.

By way of presenting a somewhat different view of the *pot-au-feu*, I subjoin the receipt of Alexandre Dumas, from the *Dictionnaire de Cuisine*, his last work, and a posthumous publication. Dumas was an amateur cook of great experience, but, beyond a few favourite dishes, and one or two with which his name is always connected, he depended for his receipts in the large volume referred to, on his old friend Vuillemot, up to a comparatively recent date the famous proprietor of the pleasant quarters at St. Cloud, well known as the *Tête Noire*. Of this work Dumas furnished, and very abundantly, all the literary material, a medley of popular scientific jottings with plenty of gossip and numerous anecdotes. It will be seen that for the *pot-au-feu* he adheres to the old tradition of an *earthen* pot; the real reason for which is, that at the ordinary fireplace, such a pot, being a bad heat conductor, favours slow and very gentle simmering better than an iron pot, which, on making only a small addition to the fire, is apt to boil briskly and so injure the broth. On a cooking-range, such as those now in general use, the iron pot is as manageable as one of earth, and is preferable for the reasons given by Gouffé. While strictly adhering to the principle that the *pot-au-feu* must consist of *beef* broth, and of a dish of beef to follow, Dumas admits some odds and ends to be added "in a horse-hair bag." Even in this receipt, the hand of the amateur is visible; for

while giving instructions, and most correctly, not to put the meat into boiling water at first, which would harden the surface of flesh, and lock up the albumen within, the broth being impoverished in consequence; he omits to state that the mutton and veal, which he orders to be partially roasted before using [really in order to communicate the flavour so produced] must be subsequently sliced, otherwise their albumen, which is completely locked up by roasting, will not enter the broth, and the *pot-au-feu* will be a failure so far as that is concerned. It should be added that Dumas admits mutton and veal as ingredients, to be adopted only in the south of France, where beef is often inferior or not procurable.

"The basis of a good *pot-au-feu* is beef . . . .

"Choose the freshest and juiciest meat you can find; let it be thick; for if thin, it will be exhausted in the cooking; do not wash it, or you will rob it of a portion of its juice. When the meat has been separated from the bones, tie it up, so that it may keep its shape, and put it in the pot with a pint of water to every pound of meat. . . . .

"We have advised you to separate the bones from the meat, not indeed because we banish them from the *pot-au-feu;* on the contrary, we reserve for them a separate place, only we break them up well with a mallet, because the more they are broken, the more effectually is the gelatine extracted from them. Then we place them in a horsehair bag with any scraps of fowl, rabbit, partridge, or roast pigeon, which may be

found in the larder; in fact, the remains of yesterday's dinner.

"Next, put your pot on the fire; you are doubtless aware that an earthenware pot is preferable to an iron pot; heat it gently; otherwise, if the meat is attacked by too high a temperature, the albumen will coagulate in the interior, and the osmazome will be prevented from becoming dissolved, and the broth will be wanting in flavour.

"When the broth has been well skimmed, and has begun to boil, put in some salt, and, according to the quantity, three or four carrots, three or four turnips, a couple of parsnips, a bunch of celery and leeks tied together, and lastly three onions, one of which should have a head of garlic stuck in it, the other two having a clove each.

"If, following the bent of your caprice or a long-established habit, you like to add a piece of mutton or veal to the ingredients we have named, remember to roast or grill it first (to deprive it of grease). Seven hours of gentle and regular boiling are necessary to give the broth all the desired qualities." *

Ordinary Braising.

Jules Gouffé's instructions for *Bœuf à la Mode*, referred to, p. 62.

"Take about 4 lbs. (2 kilos) of thick beef-steak cut

* Alexandre Dumas, *Grand Dictionnaire de Cuisine*. Paris, 1873, pp. 867-70, art. Potage.

square. Take nearly ¾ lb. (3 hectos) of fat bacon, cut off the rind, which should be put aside to blanch,* and then cut the bacon in strips for larding, about one-third of an inch square, and sprinkle them with pepper. Lard the meat and tie it up, as for the *pot-au-feu.* Place the piece of meat in a stew-pan with rather less than a pint of white wine, a wine-glass of brandy, a pint of stock, a pint of water; two calves' feet already boned and blanched, and the rind of the bacon also blanched. Put it on the fire, adding a little less than 1 oz. of salt (30 grammes). Make it boil, and skim it as for a *pot-au-feu;* next, having skimmed it, add fully 1 lb. (500 grammes) of carrots, one onion, three cloves, one faggot of herbs, and two pinches of pepper. Place the stew-pan on the corner of the stove, cover it, and allow it to simmer very gently for four hours and-a-half. Try the meat with a skewer to ascertain when it is sufficiently cooked; then put it on a dish with the carrots and the calves' feet, and keep them covered up hot until serving. Next, strain the gravy through a fine tammy; remove carefully every atom of grease, and reduce it over the fire about a quarter. Lastly, untie the beef, place it on the dish for serving; add the calves' feet, each having been cut in eight pieces, the carrots cut into pieces the size of a cork, and ten

* To "blanch" is simply plunging, either vegetable or meat, as the case may be, into boiling water for a minute or two, to remove acrid matters in the first case, and to aid cleansing in the second. To "refresh," is to dip them into cold water immediately afterwards for a minute or two.

glazed onions. Arrange the calves' feet, carrots and onions round the beef; pour the sauce over the meat, keeping the surplus for the next day. Taste it, in order to ascertain if sufficiently seasoned. Beef *à la mode* should be very relishing; sometimes a clove of garlic is added. I do not mention this as a necessary item, but as one which must be decided by the lady of the house."

"*Observations on Beef à la Mode.*

"Beef *à la mode* is so useful and so justly appreciated in domestic cookery, that I think it will be worth while to recapitulate the principal details of the process, so that there may be no error in carrying it out.

"The important question, after the choice of the meat, is the cooking, which must be done entirely by slow simmering; and this is one of the most essential points for success. For when exposed to a hot fire the result is a white, watery, insipid gravy, such as is too often found in kitchens where cooking is carelessly done. The gravy ought to be red in colour, rather gelatinous in consistence, and full of the agreeable flavour and nutritive matter of both meat and vegetables, which is the distinctive mark of the dish. To obtain this excellent quality, the vegetables should be put into the braising pot at the proper time, so that all are cooked together.

"I advise, in regard of all braised meats, whether

beef or veal, that the portions should be rather too large than too small; a long process of cooking succeeds always better with such, than with tiny portions. A second excellent dish can always be made cold with the addition of jelly. It appears to me better then to eat twice following of a good dish thus varied, than to cook the small quantity which suffices only for one meal." *

Soups made from Vegetables only.

I append the following as an example of a good *consommé* made from vegetables only, and therefore *maigre;* if well done it is very fragrant and agreeable in warm weather. Referred to at p. 78.

Consommé of Fresh Vegetable Roots.

Cut in slices 2¼ lbs. of carrots and the same weight of onions; put them in a stewpan with some parsley, thyme, shalot, and celery, and also 1 lb. 2 oz. of butter.

Fry gently to a red colour, add 8¾ pints of water; let it boil, and skim it;

Next put into it a pint and three quarters of peas and a couple of lettuces;

Then add:—

1¼ oz. of salt,

⅓ oz. of whole pepper,

* *Le Livre de Cuisine.* J. Gouffé. Paris, 1867, pp. 126–8.

1 pinch of nutmeg,
3 cloves,
1¾ pint of dried peas,
1¾ pint of white haricots.

Let it simmer for three hours at the side of the fire, skim off the grease and strain through a cloth; then put aside for use. *Op. cit.* p. 348-9.

This *consommé* may form the basis of spring soup, *jullienne, brunoise, aux œufs pōchés, crécy,* &c., fresh vegetables and other materials being added, after the analogy in each case of the *potages gras.*

PART II.

ON THE SELECTION AND PREPARATION OF FISH; AND ON FISH-SOUPS AND STEWS.

THE list of fish in general demand by the public is too restricted. The force of habit and want of interest among most English people in the matter of diet, has led to a conventional usage, limiting disadvantageously the variety of fish which would otherwise arrive at the market. Sole, whiting, mackerel, cod, salmon, turbot, trout, smelt, and red mullet, form a group to which most households in purchasing fresh fish as a rule limit their orders.

Relative to the list of fish just given, it may be remarked that the sole, the whiting, and the smelt

are the most delicate in flavour, contain the least nutritious matter, and are the easiest of digestion; fitting them admirably to the invalid commencing after illness to make a trial of solid food; the two former being also susceptible of very varied treatment in high class cooking for the production of elegant *entrées*. The turbot, rightly esteemed, is stronger food, and agrees well with most persons. The cod for some is not quite so readily taken; but is not only more palatable, but is sometimes more easily assimilated when "crimped." The same may be said of the salmon, a leading characteristic of which is the presence of fat. This element in fish is more apt to disagree with the stomach than fat from other sources; and on this account it is, that many either avoid, or eat sparingly of salmon. As the fat is chiefly found in the underside of the fish, a slice from the back only should be taken by such persons; and in the fresh crimped fish the fat is in a more wholesome state than when on the second or third day after leaving the water it becomes oily and acquires a slight characteristic taste and odour.

The mackerel is another oily fish, and it disagrees with some persons accordingly; so is the red mullet, but the oil is chiefly in the liver, and gives the fish its peculiar flavour and value.

Another list of fish which well deserves attention is headed by the Dory, an admirable fish with a peculiar firm, short, flakey, and very white flesh, belonging to the first rank in all respects, and not

sufficiently appreciated. The brill, the grey mullet, the haddock, the fresh herring and the flounder follow, all excellent food, and wanting only proper treatment in the kitchen to make them very palatable. Then the herring, the pilchard, and smaller varieties of the family, by reason of their abundance, the facility with which they are preserved, and of the fat which they contain, furnish large supplies of useful food for the working man. Next in order the skate and the plaice, of which the same may be said; while their price also brings them, or should do so, within the range of the poor; in nutritive qualities they rank much higher than the sole and whiting.

But besides all these there are fish, which may be placed if not in the first, yet certainly in the second rank, many of which are practically unknown to ninety-nine out of every hundred London housekeepers. First may be named the Wolf-fish, or Cat-fish, which, although unlike in appearance to the usual occupants of a fishmonger's shop, is a white fish, of excellent quality. It lives almost entirely on crustacea, a circumstance, as Yarrell long ago pointed out, always associated with excellence in the fish so fed. The superiority of the cod caught at the Dogger Bank is partly due to the same cause, as their food at this spot is largely crustacean. The halibut, from the North Sea, closely related to the turbot, is good and substantial food, and when large, as it often is, is also very cheap. The sea-bream, not unlike a large freshwater perch, and the basse, which has been

sometimes styled a white salmon, are both useful varieties, which have never received the attention they deserve, and which may be presented simply yet effectively at table. The gurnard is much better known, and an excellent dish may be made with it. Among cheap fish, which might be obtained in any quantity and at a very small price, are the ling and hake, related closely to the cod, but chiefly used at present as salted fish and exported; the thornback, of the same family as the skate, and equal in quality; the pollack, a substantial whiting, and the coal-fish, of the same family, but second in order of quality, are both good when in season; a proviso which, it is to be remembered, applies equally to every variety.

I shall but enumerate the conger—excellent for soup and stew making—one of the best materials from which to produce stock for turtle soup, often, but inappropriately, made from veal and beef, the turtle furnishing the garnish and the name (see page 77); the whole tribe of eels with their abounding fatty constituents; and the sturgeon with a flesh approaching in quality nearer than any other fish to that of meat; besides all the fresh-water fish, such as pike, tench, perch, &c., of which the supply is, by comparison with sea fish, limited; following on which there is still a large number of minor fish which it would be tedious to particularise. A practical remark or two may be made on the preparation of fish for the table. This commences in the hands of the fishmonger, as soon as it has become the property of the purchaser. Before

entering into his possession, the fish has to undergo the process technically known as "cleaning." This differs considerably according to the fish to be dealt with, but in all cases it involves the loss of what is often a valuable portion of nutritive matter. The gills, liver, intestines, &c., are first removed, often some skin, then portions of the fins, sometimes the head also. All these are known as "cuttings," and are sold at a low price to the poor, at the close of the day, many of whom thoroughly appreciate their value and profit thereby.

To illustrate the result of this process for the purchaser, let us see what happens in one instance, as an example, no doubt an extreme one, but nevertheless occurring daily in every fishmonger's shop. A pair of soles is bought and ordered to be sent home in fillets: eight fillets accordingly arrive. The soles were first skinned, the internal parts taken out, after which a long fillet, consisting of all the flesh on either side of the central bone, both front and back, was removed, making four from each fish. The whole skeleton, with the head, fins and tail, forming an entire piece, remains as "cuttings" in the shop. Now this piece will be found just equal to the fillets in weight, and is in fact one half of the fish; and it will make excellent stock for soup, a form of food greatly neglected in this country. For in utilising fish, as far as possible, and in circumstances where a strict economy must be regarded, the soft parts of almost any fish may be cooked apart, so that the

skeleton, head and fins may be utilised for stock, these parts being of course useless for that purpose when already cooked, as by boiling, frying, &c.

Having regard to economy, it may be remarked here, that by all these methods, but particularly by boiling, some waste of nutritive material occurs. Relative to this subject I have made numerous experiments, and find that the loss in weight by boiling varies with different fish, and also with the mode of operating. It is rarely as low as five per cent., it is generally much more, and I have known it to reach thirty per cent., the water always containing more or less solid animal matter. In order to avoid waste as much as possible, the fish should be placed in a relative quantity of water, which should be boiling. The liquor in which the fish has thus been cooked, I have evaporated, and have obtained from it, in solid deposit, no less than four per cent. of the original weight of the fish; a very startling quantity, constituting it in fact a fish broth. There is no doubt then that steaming is a more economical process than boiling, and ought to be substituted for the latter.

To return to the utilisation of the commoner kinds of fish, and of fish trimmings or cuttings, in the composition of stock. From such materials may be made a soup, or better still a stew of fish, in very savoury and nutritious form, for the economical purchaser; or a delicate and attractive dish may be presented, for an experienced palate. I may offer as

an example of the former a receipt from Gouffé, for making a good "consommé" of fish only, without any meat, and therefore a soup *maigre*.

Put into a large frying-pan, with about three-quarter pound of butter, 5 large carrots, 4 onions, 3 heads of celery, 4 shalots; all the foregoing to be cut in slices. 1 head of garlic, 3 cloves, 2 bay leaves, 1 sprig of thyme, 12 sprigs of parsley. Lightly fry them till they acquire a reddish colour. Add a large bottle of white dry Bordeaux, and 8 or 9 pints of water; boil, skim, and then add 1½ oz. of salt, and two pinches of mignonette pepper. Put in the stew-pan 6 or 7 lbs. of gurnets cut into pieces; next add the bones of six whiting, keeping the fillets for clarifying. Let it simmer for two hours on the side of the fire. When it is finished strain through a cloth. Pound the fillets of whiting with two whites of eggs; Clarify the *consommé* of fish with the whites of egg and fillets of whiting. The vegetables must be sufficiently fried to give the *consommé* a light tint. *Op. cit.* p. 348.

To present the above as a soup, make a number of small *quenelles* of whiting, and add to the tureen before serving.

A Simple Receipt.

The next, a simpler receipt, can be recommended, after numerous trials, as an excellent family fish-soup. Referred to at p. 78.

Put 3 oz. of butter into a stewpan; add two carrots sliced; one onion and a shalot, in thin slices; a clove, a little thyme, and some parsley. Fry them gently until of a reddish tint; then add 3 pints of cold water. Let it boil, skimming occasionally. Then add a small fresh haddock, bones and all, cut up into pieces, and the head and bones of two whitings, setting aside the fillets. A cod's head, or that of a turbot; or the fresh bones, head and fins of a sole, the fillets of which are required for another dish, may take the place of the foregoing. Add some salt and a little pepper. Let all simmer together for 2 hours gently, at the corner of the fire; take out the bones and pass all the rest through a coarse strainer. Divide the fillets of whiting into 2 or 3 small portions each, boil for a few minutes in some of the stock, add a little fresh green chervil and parsley chopped, not too finely, and serve all together in a tureen.

If the soup is preferred somewhat thicker in body than this receipt produces, let it be made so by adding some farinaceous matter in small quantity; the proper form being a tablespoonful of white "roux" (that is, a little flour well mixed with butter in a stewpan over the fire and not allowed to brown), and this is unquestionably an improvement.

It is unnecessary to clarify fish soups; if other garnish is desired, *quenelles* of whiting may be substituted for the fillets; and some of them may have a little coral (spawn of the lobster) added to furnish

colour. A further change may be made by adding fillets of other fish, or a few shell-fish.

*A Bouillabaise for six persons.**

Take three or four pounds of fish; whiting, sole, small haddock, red mullet, and, following the Marséilles receipt strictly throughout, a very small conger eel or a portion of one. All these are to be cleaned, cut in slices, and their bones removed; two dozen of mussels to be added.

Put into a stewpan two onions sliced, two tomatoes peeled, a carrot sliced; then, in a coarse net bag, the following:—two bay leaves, two slices of lemon, half the zest of a Seville orange, two cloves, a little thyme, several sprigs of parsley, a clove of garlic, two red capsicums cut, and a little saffron: add salt and pepper, and a little pimento. Place the pieces of fish over these, pour in six tablespoonfuls of olive oil; add three pints of water, with two or three glasses of white French wine; cover, and let all boil well together for half an hour. The whiting, however, should be put in only a quarter of an hour before finishing. Serve the whole in a soup tureen with slices of toasted bread apart; or place them in the tureen before filling.

* Referred to at p. 79.

ECONOMICAL DISH, OR FISH STEW FOR WORKING MAN'S FAMILY.

Take three or four pounds of hake, ling, skate, or haddock, and a pound of "cuttings or trimmings," which are the best part of the fish for stock making. Remove all the fish from the bones, break up or pound the latter, and set aside with any portion of head there may be, and the cuttings. Put into a saucepan, over the fire, 2 ozs. of lard and two or three onions sliced, and let them fry until brown; then add two quarts of water and all the pounded bones and trimmings, some parsley or other green herbs, pepper and salt. Let the whole simmer for three hours. Strain out the bones, bits of skin, &c., add the fish in pieces, and boil gently ten or fifteen minutes. Thicken with sufficient flour mixed smoothly with a small portion of stock, and added before finishing. In order to make the dish complete and substantial, a few small suet dumplings should be well boiled, and put into the tureen.

THE END.

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